



Examining the Factors Structures of Brand Loyalty of Men's Deodorants among Generation X and Generation Y Consumers in Cape Town

Lobojo L.B Lokosang

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of Master of
Commerce in Marketing (BUS5000W)
in the
School of Management Studies,
University of Cape Town.

Supervisor: Dr. Pragasen Pillay

2019

The copyright of this thesis vests in the author. No quotation from it or information derived from it is to be published without full acknowledgement of the source. The thesis is to be used for private study or non-commercial research purposes only.

Published by the University of Cape Town (UCT) in terms of the non-exclusive license granted to UCT by the author.



**SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT STUDIES
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN
BUS5000W**

DECLARATION REGARDING PLAGIARISM

By indicating my signature on this page, I agree to the following:

1. I know that using another person's ideas and pretending that they are one's own constitute plagiarism. I am aware of the potential penalties for this misdemeanour.
2. I have used the Havard referencing guide for citation and referencing. Each contribution and quotation from the work of other people has been cited and referenced.
3. This project is my own work.
4. I have not allowed, and will not allow, anyone to copy this work with the intention of passing it off as his/her/their own work.

Signed by candidate

Signature of Student

Turnitin score: 10%

16/10/2019
Date

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank my personal saviour, Jesus Christ and to my Father in Heaven, the Lord God Almighty for protecting me during my tenure in Cape Town and guiding me during tough times through His word, "I can do all things in Christ who strengthens me".

This success of this project was attributable to many people who played different roles during the period of study. I owe a debt of gratitude to my parents- Dr. Laila Lokosang and Mrs Jackline Keji Lokosang. Dad, you paved a way forward in pursuit of higher education, a big thank you for your special console in this study and always having the time to attend to my queries. A big thank you to my mother, for recently achieving her own Masters' and forever encouraging me; thank you for the long calls and assuring me that I could do this. This study would not have been successful if Dr. Pragasen Pillay had not played his supervisory role. Dr. Pragasen Pillay, you have been a big blessing in this long journey. I thank you for your advice, for sharing your knowledge and wisdom in the field of marketing. I thank you for your kindness, empathy and belief; this was all possible because of your guidance.

I would like to extend my sincere thank you to Innocent Mwanjabe, my best friend and brother from another mother. You have been an inspiration in my daily and academic life. You gave me your ears when I talked to you and I wish you the best in your academic studies as well. Pastor Dave and Linda, thank you for constantly checking up and praying for and the love you have shown me during the period of this study.

My brothers in Christ, Bendre and Felix, thank you for your support and sharing your Cape Town experiences. Thank you Felix for assisting with data collection and motivation. A special thank you to my landlord, Gregory Hector and Cheryl for welcoming me into your home. To my brother, Lado Lokosang- doctor-to-be, pursuing your medical studies was the icing on the cake for me to be where I am today.

My sincere thank you to my Ethiopian family: Jackie, Sophie, Feven, Adeng, Tola, Uncle Andu, Sipho, Aunt Vicky. Pastor Girum, thank you for your prayers over the phone. Much love to Cocoa Wawa Family for your support. Dr Joel Chigada, I thank you for editing and proofreading my work. My heartfelt thank you to the University of Cape Town for granting me an opportunity to study this programme. Last, I thank all respondents for their time, data and commitment to this project.

ABSTRACT

This study examines the structures and reliability of brand loyalty in men's deodorant consumption, as suggested by Moolla's (2010) framework. This is due to the fickle or disloyal nature of male Generation X and Generation Y deodorant consumers. Although, the subject of brand loyalty is popular, there is a lack of research in the investigation of Generation X and Generation Y consumers specifically in the men's deodorant industry in Cape Town. This study attempted to close the gap by examining brand loyalty of Generation X and Generation Y consumers in Cape Town through the brand loyalty framework. Based on Chronbach Alphas, the study assessed the degree to which each factor of deodorant brand loyalty loads unto a construct or internal consistency.

This study's motivation is to attempt to assist management develop appropriate strategies, and to expand the body of knowledge for academics, due to limited information and to pave the way for researchers to explore various product categories specifically utilised by men as well as assist them with a tested brand loyalty framework.

A positivist research paradigm provided the belief system in which data for the current study was gathered, analysed and used to provide solutions. A descriptive research design chosen for the study resulted in the application of a quantitative research methodology. With reference to Moolla's research questionnaire, data for the current study was collected from men between the ages of 36 and 52 (Generation X) and Generation Y (men between the ages of 18 and 35). A total of 245 responses were received from Generation X and Generation Y men who are brand loyal to men's deodorants and the data were collected by statistically analysing this sample. This research established that there were leading brands that consumers were brand loyal to and that there were dominant brand loyalty influences for both Generation X and Generation Y consumers in the men's deodorant industry. In addition, it was revealed in the study that the suggested recommendations were that there needs to be further research in the men's deodorant industry, a comparative study should be conducted, brand loyalty of other product categories should be investigated and marketers should focus on culture as a significant influence of brand loyalty. For future research, it was recommended that this study be continued on a larger scale in the men's deodorant industry to endorse or rectify the results of this study.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION REGARDING PLAGIARISM.....	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	i
ABSTRACT	ii
LIST OF TABLES.....	viii
LIST OF FIGURES	ix
LIST OF ACRONYMS.....	x
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND.....	1
1.1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.2 BACKGROUND OF STUDY	3
1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT.....	3
1.4 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY	5
1.5 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES.....	5
1.5.1 Primary research objective	5
1.5.1 Secondary research objectives.....	5
1.6 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY	6
1.7 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK	7
1.8 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	8
1.8.1 Research paradigm	8
1.8.2 Research design.....	9
1.8.3 Research methodology.....	9
1.8.4 Target population.....	9
1.8.5 Sampling.....	9
1.8.6 Sampling frame.....	10
1.8.7 Data collection	10
1.8.8 Data analysis and presentation.....	10
1.8.9 Hypothesis testing	11
1.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS.....	11

1.10 SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY	12
1.10.1 Scope	12
1.10.2 Limitations	12
1.11 CHAPTER ORGANISATION	12
1.12 CONCLUSION	13
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW.....	14
2.1 DEODORANT INDUSTRY IN SOUTH AFRICA.....	14
2.2 BRAND	15
2.3 DIMENSIONS OF A BRAND	16
2.4 BRAND EQUITY	17
2.5 BRAND POSITIONING	18
2.6 BRAND PREFERENCE	19
2.7 BRAND LOYALTY	20
2.8 TYPES OF BRAND LOYALTY.....	21
2.8.1 Transactional loyalty	21
2.8.2 Contractual loyalty	22
2.8.3 Functional loyalty	22
2.8.4 Emotional loyalty.....	22
2.8.5 Spurious loyalty	23
2.8.6 Latent loyalty.....	23
2.8.7 No loyalty	23
2.8.8 Covetous loyalty	23
2.8.9 Inertia loyalty.....	24
2.8.10 Premium loyalty	24
2.9 TYPES OF BRAND LOYALTY CUSTOMERS.....	24
2.9.1 Four types of loyal customers.....	25
2.9.1.1 Captive	25
2.9.1.2 Convenience seekers	26
2.9.1.3 Contented	26
2.9.1.4 Committed	26

2.10 BRAND LOYALTY CONCEPTS	26
2.10.1 Brand loyalty as a biased response	27
2.10.2 Brand loyalty as a behavioural response	27
2.10.3 Brand loyalty expressed over time	27
2.10.4 Brand loyalty as a decision making unit.....	27
2.10.5 Selection of brands	28
2.10.6 Function of a psychological process	28
2.11 MODELS TO MEASURE BRAND LOYALTY.....	28
2.11.1 Punniyamoorthy and Raj (2007) model of brand loyalty	29
2.11.2 Roy's three dimensional model of brand loyalty.....	29
2.12 BRAND LOYALTY BENEFITS	31
2.12.1 Higher sales volume	31
2.12.2 Premium pricing ability.....	31
2.12.3 Retain rather than seek customer retention	32
2.12.4 Creating perceptions.....	32
2.12.5 Referrals	32
2.12.6 Increased usage and spending.....	32
2.12.7 Financial benefits.....	32
2.12.8 Contributing to the return on investment (ROI) and enhanced return	33
2.13 PURCHASE INTENTION.....	33
2.14 MODEL OF CONSUMER PURCHASE DECISION MAKING	34
2.14.1 Problem recognition.....	35
2.14.2 Information search	35
2.14.3 Alternative evaluation	35
2.14.4 Purchase decision	36
2.14.5 Post-purchase evaluation	36
2.15 TYPES OF PLANNED BUYING BEHAVIOUR.....	37
2.15.1 Unplanned buying.....	37
2.15.2 Partially planned buying.....	38
2.15.3 Fully planned buying.....	38
2.16 THEORIES OF BEHAVIOUR.....	39
2.16.1 Theory of reasoned action	39
2.16.2 Theory of planned behaviour	40

2.17 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK TO MEASURE BRAND LOYALTY	41
2.17.1 Customer satisfaction	41
2.17.2 Switching costs	42
2.17.3 Brand trust	43
2.17.4 Relationship proneness	44
2.17.5 Involvement	45
2.17.6 Perceived value	46
2.17.7 Brand commitment.....	47
2.17.8 Repeat purchase	48
2.17.9 Brand affect	49
2.17.10 Brand relevance.....	50
2.17.11 Brand performance	51
2.17.12 Culture	53
2.18 CONCLUSION	54
CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	55
3.1 INTRODUCTION	55
3.2 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY	55
3.2.1 Positivist paradigm.....	55
3.2.2 Interpretative paradigm	56
3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN	56
3.4 RESEARCH STRATEGY	57
3.5 TARGET POPULATION	58
3.6 SAMPLING	59
3.7 SAMPLING STRATEGIES	60
3.7.1 Probability sampling.....	60
3.7.2 Non-probability sampling	61
3.8 RESEARCH INSTRUMENT	62
3.8.1 Questionnaire	62
3.9 PILOT STUDY	62

3.10 DATA ANALYSIS	63
3.10.1 Validity of research instruments	64
a) Factor analysis	64
b) Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy	64
c) Barlett's test of sphericity	65
d) Cronbach's Alpha	65
e) Hypothesis test (t-Test)	65
3.11 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY	66
3.12 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY	66
3.13 ELIMINATION OF BIAS	67
3.14 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS	67
3.14.1 Permission to conduct study	67
3.14.2 Informed consent	68
3.14.3 Protection from physical or emotional harm	68
3.14.4 Privacy of respondents	68
3.15 CONCLUSION	68
CHAPTER FOUR: PRESENTATION OF RESULTS	69
4.1 INTRODUCTION	69
4.2 DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS	69
4.3 QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS	74
4.3.2 Results of the analysis	74
4.3.2.1 Customer Satisfaction (CUS)	74
4.3.2.2 Switching Costs (SCR)	75
4.3.2.3 Brand trust (BTS)	77
4.3.2.4 Relationship Proneness (RPR)	78
4.3.2.5 Involvement (INV)	79
4.3.2.6 Perceived Value (PVL)	80
4.3.2.7 Commitment (COM)	82

4.3.2.8 Repeat Purchase (RPS)	83
4.3.2.9 Brand Affect (BAF)	84
4.3.2.10 Brand Relevance (BRV)	85
4.3.2.11 Brand Performance (BPF)	87
4.3.1.12 Culture (CUL)	88
4.4 TEST OF INTERRELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE FACTORS.....	89
4.5 RELIABILITY OF RESULTS	94
4.6 IMPORTANCE OF VARIABLES (LOYALTY CONSTRUCTS).....	97
4.6.1 Customer Satisfaction (CUS).....	97
4.6.2 Switching Costs (SCR)	98
4.6.3 Brand Trust (BTS).....	99
4.6.4 Relationship Proneness (RPR).....	100
4.6.5 Involvement (INV)	101
4.6.6 Perceived Value (PVL)	102
4.6.7 Commitment (COM).....	103
4.6.8 Repeat Purchase (RPS)	104
4.6.9 Brand Affect (BAF).....	106
4.6.10 Brand Relevance (BRV)	106
4.6.11 Brand Performance (BPF)	107
4.6.12 Culture (CUL).....	108
4.7 SUMMARY OF MEAN VALUES	109
4.8 TEST OF INTER-GENERATIONAL MEAN DIFFERENCE.....	110
4.9 BRAND LOYALTY FRAMEWORK IN THE MEN'S DEODORANT INDUSTRY	112
4.10 CONCLUSION	113
CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARIES, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.	115
5.1 INTRODUCTION	115
5.2 SUMMARY OF LITERATURE REVIEW FINDINGS	115
5.3 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS.....	117

5.4 ADDRESSING THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVES	118
5.4.1 The factor loadings of each item of Moolla's (2010) twelve-factor brand loyalty drivers.....	118
5.4.2 Reliability of the identified brand loyalty influencers/drivers	119
5.4.3 Establishing drivers of Moolla's (2010) twelve-factor model	120
5.4.4 The mean difference in the brand loyalty drivers between Gen X and Gen Y	120
5.5 MANAGERIAL AND MARKETING IMPLICATIONS	121
5.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY	122
5.7 RECOMMENDATIONS.....	123
5.7.1 Further studies in the men's deodorant industry	123
5.7.2 Conduct a comparative study	123
5.7.3 Investigate brand loyalty of other product categories.....	123
5.7.4 Focus on culture	123
5.8 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH	124
5.9 CONCLUSION	124
REFERENCES.....	126
APPENDIX A: RESEARCH INSTRUMENT.....	142
APPENDIX B: ETHICS APPROVAL	150
APPENDIX C: STATISTICIAN'S LETTER	151
APPENDIX D: LANGUAGE QUALITY ASSURANCE PRACTITIONER LETTER	152

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1: Generation (Age group) of respondents	69
Table 4.2: Leading brands of men's deodorants among respondents.....	73
Table 4.3: The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's test of Customer Satisfaction	74
Table 4.4: Factor analysis of Customer Satisfaction	74
Table 4.5: The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's test of Switching Costs.....	75
Table 4.6: Factor analysis of Switching Costs	76
Table 4.7: The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's test of Brand Trust	77
Table 4.8: Factor analysis of Brand Trust.....	77
Table 4.9: The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's test of Relationship Proneness ...	78
Table 4.10: Factor analysis of Relationship Proneness.....	78
Table 4.11: The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's test of Involvement.....	79
Table 4.12: Factor analysis of Involvement	80
Table 4.13: The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's test of Perceived value.....	81
Table 4.14: Factor analysis of Perceived Value	81
Table 4.15: The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's test of Commitment.....	82
Table 4.16: Factor analysis of Commitment	82
Table 4.17: The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's test of Repeat Purchase	83
Table 4.18: Factor analysis of Repeat Purchase.....	84
Table 4.19: The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's test of Brand Affect	84
Table 4.20: Factor analysis of Brand Affect.....	85
Table 4.21: The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's test of Brand Relevance.....	85
Table 4.22: Factor analysis of Brand Relevance	86
Table 4.23: The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's test of Brand Performance	87
Table 4.24: Factor analysis of Brand Performance	87
Table 4.25: The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's test of Culture	88
Table 4.26: Factor analysis of Culture.....	88
Table 4.27: Test of interrelationships between Gen Y latent factors	90
Table 4.28: Test of interrelationships between Gen X latent factors	92
Table 4.29: Cronbach alpha coefficient classification (George & Mallery, 2003).....	94
Table 4.30: Reliability of the influences and their factors	95
Table 4.31: A 3-scale framework for interpreting mean percentage values.....	97
Table 4.32 Mean scores of Customer Satisfaction	98

Table 4.33 Mean scores of Switching Costs	99
Table 4.34 Mean scores of Brand Trust	100
Table 4.35 Mean scores of Relationship Proneness	101
Table 4.36 Mean scores of Involvement.....	102
Table 4.37 Mean scores of Perceived Value	103
Table 4.38 Mean scores of Commitment.....	104
Table 4.39 Mean scores of Repeat Purchase	105
Table 4.40 Mean scores of Brand Affect	106
Table 4.41 Mean scores of Brand Relevance	107
Table 4.42 Mean scores of Brand Performance	108
Table 4.43 Mean scores of Culture	108
Table 4.44: Summary of mean values of brand loyalty influences	109
Table 4.45: Descriptive statistics of overall inter-generational mean difference in brand loyalty	110
Table 4.46: Independent-Samples Test of the mean difference in brand loyalty between Gen X and Gen Y	111
Table 4.47: Independent-Samples Test of the mean difference in each brand loyalty influences between Gen X and Gen Y	112

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1: Theoretical framework on brand loyalty (Moolla, 2010).....	8
Figure 2.1: The Burnett model of brand dimensions (Randall, 2001)	16
Figure 2.2: Kapferer's prism of identity (Kapferer, 1992).....	17
Figure 2.3: Brand positioning (Kapferer, 2004)	19
Figure 2.4: Five levels of brand loyalty (Aaker, 1991)	25
Figure 2.5: Model for measuring brand loyalty (Punniyamoorthy & Raj, 2007)	29
Figure 2.6: Three-dimensional model of brand loyalty (Roy, 2011).....	31
Figure 2.7: The buyer decision process (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010).....	37
Figure 2.8: The Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein&Aizen, 1975)	40
Figure 2.9: The Theory of Planned Behaviour (Aizen, 1985)	41
Figure 4.1: Race of respondents	70
Figure 4.2: Geographic distribution of respondents.....	71
Figure 4.3: Income segment of respondents per annum	72

Figure 4.4: Industry employment of respondents	73
Figure 4.5: A conceptual men's deodorant brand loyalty framework.....	113

LIST OF ACRONYMS

BAF	Brand Affect
BPF	Brand Performance
CAGR	Compound Annual Growth Rate
CBD	Central Business District
COM	Commitment
CUL	Culture
CUS	Customer Satisfaction
FMCG	Fast Moving Consumer Goods
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
ROI	Return on Investment
TPB	Theory of Planned Behaviour
TRA	Theory of Reasoned Action
UCT	University of Cape Town

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This study examines the factor structures of brand loyalty of men's deodorants among Generation X and Generation Y consumers in Cape Town. To determine brand loyalty of consumers, a brand loyalty framework by Moolla (2010) is utilised. This framework was adapted because it was tested in fast moving consumer goods (FMCG) industry in South Africa. He selected twelve influences based on a sound rationale and based on empirical assessment. Deodorants are regarded as FMCGs because they are consumed on a daily basis and are generally purchased by retail customers. Companies in the deodorant industry manufacture and distribute deodorants as well as retail antiperspirants that focus on reducing odours and moisture created by growing bacteria in the armpits and other parts of the body. Deodorants may be classified as solid and stick deodorants, liquid roll-ons and other forms such as creams, gels, pumps and wipes. As there has been an increase in the focal point in the appearance, hygiene and grooming by men, this has resulted in a strong growth in the personal care category; positively affecting the men's deodorant industry simultaneously (Market Research Report, 2017).

Products targeted exclusively for men are experiencing a rapid growth and outperforming in the personal care market, which has until recently been dominated by the presence of female oriented products (Market Research Report, 2017). There is a preference for deodorants by men in comparison to the luxury perfumes favoured by women, resulting in an overall drive in the sales of deodorants; exacerbated by an increase in the usage of daily grooming practices amongst teenagers and white-collar professionals (Market Research Report, 2017). There is an expected substantial growth in the global deodorant industry due to increased standards of living and awareness of hygiene among consumers, leading to the demand of deodorants rapidly increasing due to a rising number of consumers who require to feel and smell good. This leads to manufacturers focusing on supplying consumers with high quality deodorants such as sprays, scents and sticks that provide them with long lasting and fresh fragrance that would grow the demand for their deodorant products (Decision Databases, 2015).

The global deodorant market shows a compound average growth rate (CAGR) of 5.65 percent between 2016 and 2020. The key factor driving the projections for growth in this market is due to the prompt growth of emerging markets (TechNavio, 2015). The growth of emerging markets might lead to economic development and increase in demand for celebrity scented brands and youth-oriented products as well as increase the growth of the global deodorant market (Persistence Market Research, 2017). Due to South Africa's hot climate, men perceive deodorants as essential products. Regardless of the economic situation in the country, deodorants are still a vital part of the shopping baskets of consumers (Joyner, 2016). The growth in attention towards hygiene and grooming has strengthened the growth of men's deodorants in South Africa. Even though many consumers were unwilling to abandon purchasing deodorant products due to financial constraints, these consumers regarded such products beneficial due to the country's climate. A majority of consumers globally, use a combination of deodorant roll-ons and over the top deodorant body sprays as a means of having an extra defence against sweat as well as utilising the added fragrance (Euromonitor, 2017).

By conducting the study in the South African consumer market, the emphasis was on men who use men's deodorants in Cape Town. The estimated total number of inhabitants in Cape Town is 3,740,026; 48.95 percent of this population are men, which account to 1,830,699 (Statistics South Africa, 2016). Generation X consumers were born between 1965 and 1980 and Generation Y (Gen Y) consumers between 1981 and 2000. Generation X (Gen X) consumers known to be pessimistic consumers assess their purchases and are regarded as disloyal (Ordun, 2015). Gen Y consumers have a large size and huge spending power which makes them vital in today's market. They are difficult to describe as being brand loyal due to resisting marketing efforts and repeat purchase is complicated to achieve because of their disloyalty. Unlike past generations, brought up in an era where everything is branded and react to brands differently. The generation's disloyalty has ensured that traditional marketing methods does not apply to them (Lazarevic & Petrovic-Lazarevic, 2008).

1.2 BACKGROUND OF STUDY

Nowadays, different companies face dilemmas in deciding how to ensure that consumers are more loyal towards their brand. For the past eight decades, there has been debate amongst academics on the subject of brand loyalty (Du Plooy, 2012). Attention towards brand loyalty by the marketing field was originated in academic literature by Copeland (1923), leading to numerous definitions and tools of measurement being established. During the 1923 era, the measurement of brand loyalty was as a result of elements such as the probability of purchase, percentage of purchase totality and sequence of purchases (Kabiraj & Shanmugan, 2011). This idea resulted in a change in focus to price, practicality and quality in the marketing of products with the anticipation that this would establish an intention to purchase by consumers as long as their principles were achieved by these elements (Maheshwari, Lodorfos & Jacobsen, 2014). Preceding studies identified that attitudinal facets were significant as behavioural facets, ensuring clarity on the perception that brands should not only be viewed as emotional but functional as well; leading to the shift in focus of marketing strategies on value creation and relationships (Iglesias, Singh & Batista-Foguet, 2011).

Brand loyalty is described by the intention to purchase a brand as brand loyalists to an extent have an emotional relationship and commitment to the brand (Wel, Alam & Nor, 2011). As a result of preceding studies on brand loyalty, brands are viewed as having elements that are emotional and rational by marketers and researchers; contributing to the creation of an intricate environment for researchers. Furthermore, previous research reveals that the construct of brand loyalty has several drivers and at present, researchers still do not agree on which elements can contribute to the measurement of brand loyalty (Wel, Alam & Nor, 2011; Maheshwari, Lodorfos & Jacobsen, 2014). In brief, the study aimed to assess and confirm the factor structure of brand loyalty drivers (or influences) through factor analysis and then to confirm each constructs' reliability with Cronbach alphas.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Research into brand loyalty continues to grow in popularity and both academics and marketing practitioners rely on the findings from empirical research to enhance their

understanding and appreciation of branding and its influence on consumer behaviour and market segmentation (Moolla, 2010). Mostert, Petzer and Weideman (2016) indicate that the concept of brand loyalty has inspired awareness to practitioners and academics, as it signifies the most essential elements in describing the choices that customers make towards a brand. However, Gen X and Gen Y consumers are known not to have brand loyalty as they indicate resistance to the marketing activities by brands. Gen X consumers tend to disregard advertising that is directed at them as well as discard any type of segmentation and technique of marketing. The loyalty of Generation Y consumers tends to be unpredictable as they change in accordance to trends, brand popularity, fashion and are more focused on style and quality than price (Reisenwitz & Iyer, 2009). Similarly, Lissitsa and Kol (2016) highlight that Gen X consumers lack interest in marketing activities that are regarded as slick and universal, while Generation Y consumers are more aware of marketing tactics and are more suspicious of marketing in comparison to previous generations due to their ability to access vast information easily and undertake research prior to making a purchasing decision. Although universally there is a variety of research on brand loyalty in sectors such as the fashion industry, publishing industry, food industry and healthcare industry, the lack of research in the fast moving consumer goods industry (FMCG) is a cause for concern (Moolla, 2010). Additionally, there is also a lack of academic research on brand loyalty specifically focusing on the men's deodorant industry especially in Cape Town.

Moolla's conceptual framework was adopted based on three main considerations. First, it empirically identified the most influences in measuring brand loyalty in the FMCG sector based on their strengths, as well presents the interrelationships between them. Deodorants fall in the category of FMCGs and this is particularly true for major urban centres like Cape Town. Second, the framework builds on previously tested brand loyalty models; leading to selection of the most commonly used reliable and valid brand loyalty influences. Third, Moolla's framework is the most suitable to the aims of this study, with the difference being that this study tests it in the men's deodorant industry. A similar study by Du Plooy (2012) also reinforces this finding.

To solve this problem challenging marketers, this study aims to provide a solution to the following research question:

Is Molla's (2010) framework of brand loyalty drivers applicable and reliable for examining the drivers of brand loyalty for men's deodorants among Gen X and Gen Y consumers?

1.4 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to examine the factor structures and confirm the reliability of brand loyalty drivers among Gen X and Gen Y consumers in the men's deodorant industry in Cape Town to make recommendations concerning strategies in marketing. The study also highlights the existence of brand loyalty through the twelve influences that measure brand loyalty. As there is a lack of academic research on brand loyalty in the men's deodorant industry, this study aims to expand the academic literature to both academics and marketing practitioners by providing a better understanding in the industry of men's deodorants.

1.5 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The research objectives for the study are presented in this section.

1.5.1 Primary research objective

The following primary objective guided this study:

- To examine the factor structure and the reliability of Molla's (2010) twelve-factor brand loyalty drivers for some men's deodorant brands among Generation X and Generation Y consumers in Cape Town.

1.5.1 Secondary research objectives

In support of the primary objective, the secondary objectives were:

- a) To determine the items-factor loadings for each of Molla's (2010) twelve-factor brand loyalty drivers in the context of men's deodorants among Generation X and Generation Y consumers in Cape Town.
- b) To assess the reliability of each of the identified brand loyalty influencers/drivers in the men's deodorant industry among Generation X and Generation Y consumers in Cape Town.

- c) To confirm Moolla's (2010) twelve-factor model of brand loyalty drivers in the men's deodorant product category among Generation X and Generation Y consumers in Cape Town.
- d) To assess the mean difference in the brand loyalty drivers between Gen X and Gen Y.

1.6 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

This study is important because it is comparative in understanding brand loyalty of Gen X and Gen Y consumers in the men's deodorant industry. Although, brand loyalty is continuously growing in popularity, there is insufficient research on brand loyalty among Gen X and Gen Y consumers in the men's deodorant industry. Therefore, the study aims to close the gap by focusing on the influences of brand loyalty founded on the theoretical framework developed and tested in South Africa, as well as expanding on the body of knowledge that can be vital for future researchers and marketing practitioners. Previous studies such as that by Lazarevic and Petrovic-Lazarevic (2008) suggest that Gen X and Gen Y consumers are disloyal and complicated, thus, this study sets out to establish the loyalty of consumers in the men's deodorant industry.

More importantly, this study helps to understand male consumers' purchase intentions of men's deodorants in Cape Town, because of the limited information available in the industry. Marketers will not only have a sense of what influences are dominant but the least impactful influences in order to improve the loyalty for their own deodorant products. Furthermore, marketers who are not in the men's deodorant industry but have brands in other product categories utilised by men can use this study as a guide to examine these brand loyalty influences in their own industries. As there is limited academic research available in the men's deodorant industry, this study also proves its significance by paving the way for future researchers to not only expand on brand loyalty within the men's deodorant industry but to explore various product categories that are explicitly utilised by men. For instance, future researchers locally and globally can investigate male grooming products. This study can be a guide to examine brand loyalty of facial moisturisers or facial washes and scrubs used by men as this is a market that is rapidly growing. This study assists future researchers with a tried and

tested brand loyalty framework and a questionnaire adapted from Moolla to examine brand loyalty. Moreover, the study's significance is the theoretical framework's advancement in the management and measurement of brand loyalty of consumers in determining the exact brand loyalty influences that are substantial to their brands and how brands can live up to expectations of brand managers (Du Plooy, 2012; Moolla & Bisschoff, 2012).

1.7 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This section comprises of a synopsis of the theoretical framework and it is further explained in Chapter Two. The study adopts and applies Moolla (2010)'s theoretical framework developed to measure brand loyalty and identify brand loyalty factors that have an impact on behaviour of Gen X and Gen Y deodorant consumers in Cape Town, South Africa. Moolla (2010) investigated past models of brand loyalty that led to the development of the theoretical framework and the selection of twelve brand loyalty influences (Du Plooy, 2012; Moolla & Bisschoff, 2012). The impact on the industry of fast moving consumer goods through the measurement of the essential influences of brand loyalty premised this study. The theoretical study not only focused on the measurement of these twelve factors influence on brand loyalty, but also on the interrelationships among these factors (Moolla, 2010; Du Plooy, 2012). Moolla (2010) indicated that the twelve influences in the industry of fast moving consumer goods as being diversely impacted by brand loyalty, whereas brand performance had a lesser effect in comparison to psychological influences which had a greater effect.

The theoretical framework was developed to measure brand loyalty in order to categorise the factors that influence customer behaviour in relation to brand loyalty. Twelve significant influences of brand loyalty were identified through searching past loyalty models (Moolla, 2010). These twelve significant influences are illustrated in Figure 1.1 and they include: brand commitment; brand affect; brand relevance; perceived value; relationship proneness; customer satisfaction; switching costs; brand trust; repeat purchase; involvement; brand performance and culture (Moolla, 2010).

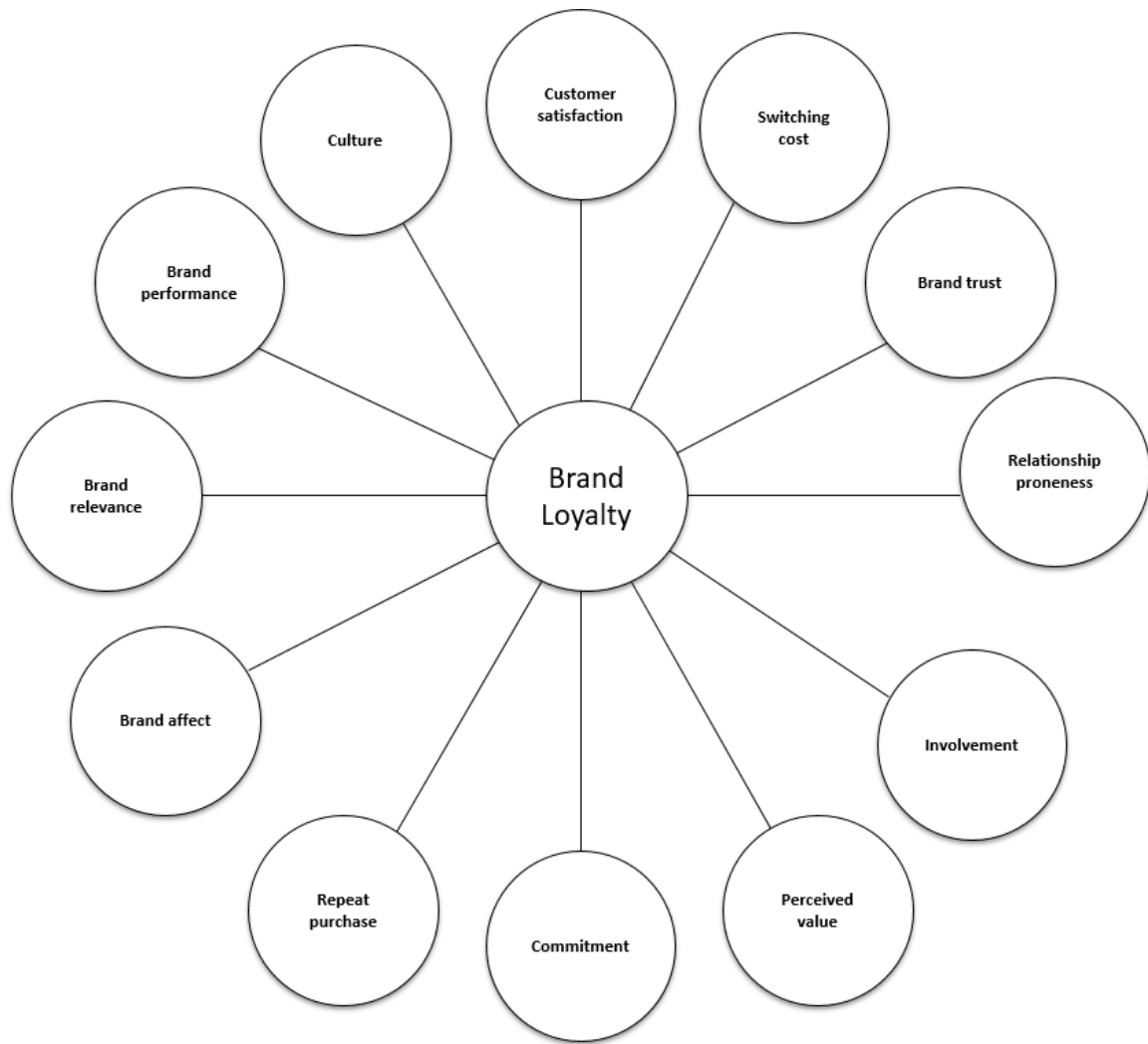


Figure 1.1: Theoretical framework on brand loyalty (Moolla, 2010)

1.8 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This section briefly outlines the research plan applied in this study. The research paradigm of the study is clarified; the targeted population is highlighted; the sampling and sampling frame of the study is shown; collection of data is described; the data analysis and population is then presented.

1.8.1 Research paradigm

This study utilised a positivist paradigm. The foundation of a positivist paradigm is that it assumes that there is existence of actuality and it is a scientific method that is utilised for quantitative research (Starkey, 2017). However, a positive paradigm is also perceived as being challenging to accurately plan as it is utilised in various ways and

it is viewed as a method of explaining the collection of data that is superficial and uncomplimentary (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Desai, 2017).

1.8.2 Research design

A descriptive research design based on a positivist paradigm was utilised as a research design for this study. A descriptive research design was essential for this study because it is an integral component that measures brand loyalty in the men's deodorant industry and understanding brand loyalty of Gen X and Gen Y consumers.

1.8.3 Research methodology

With reference to the positivist research paradigm, a quantitative research methodology was used in this study. A research methodology is an action plan or set of processes that are undertaken when gathering, analysing and using data in a study (Bryman & Bell, 2011). It was imperative to use an appropriate research methodology in line with the research design to ensure a seamless approach to the study.

1.8.4 Target population

The population targeted in this study were Gen X men between the ages of 36 to 52 and Gen Y men between the ages of 18 to 35 in Cape Town who buy men's deodorants. The population targeted assisted the study by ensuring that there was some understanding of the men's deodorant industry by investigating men that had different income, profession, residence and race. The total population of this group of male consumers could not be ascertained at the time of the study.

1.8.5 Sampling

Hirschfelder (2015) indicates that at this juncture the research problem is identified and the research design is concluded as well as the measurement being specified in the creation of constructs. Malhotra (2010) mentions that sampling is essential as it is a notion that ensures that the targeted population is a representation of the whole population.

1.8.6 Sampling frame

A sample of 250 respondents were targeted for the study. A two-stage non-probability purposive sampling technique was used in this study. First, the population targeted was divided into quotas according to Gen X and Gen Y men all races, areas in Cape Town, employed and unemployed and of various income and professions. Secondly, convenience sampling was carried out which ensured that data were collected from respondents. Based on a sampling method described in Chapter Three, a sample of 250 male respondents was selected from among Generation X and Generation Y who used a deodorant in Cape Town. Data were collected from 245 male users of deodorants, representing 98 percent response rate.

1.8.7 Data collection

This study adapted a questionnaire that was established by Moolla (2010) for the collection of data. The researcher physically circulated it to respondents who were met at different public locations such as bus stations, train stations and areas with a lot of foot traffic. The survey was conducted outside of malls instead of inside as this would require obtaining permission from the mall authorities. The questionnaire focused on the influences of brand loyalty of men's deodorants among Generation X and Generation Y consumers and the scope of the total of items per influence was from three to five.

1.8.8 Data analysis and presentation

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 23 of 2018 was used for the analysis of the data that was collected in the study. This ensured that the collected data could be presented and concluded in detail by focusing on brand loyalty of Gen X and Gen Y consumers in the men's deodorant industry in Cape Town. The application of Factor Analysis ensured the identification of the principle factors affecting the loyalty of customers toward certain brands of deodorants under study. In addition, an analysis to establish the importance of each influence of brand loyalty was by a way of mean scores. Finally, t-Tests were conducted to assess the mean difference in the brand loyalty drivers between Gen X and Gen Y.

1.8.9 Hypothesis testing

Test of hypothesis regarding the relationship between the variables under study, i.e., questions expressing brand loyalty to a range of deodorant brands available in Cape Town (Bartlett's Test of Sphericity), are expressed in terms of a Null Hypothesis (H_0) versus an Alternative Hypothesis (H_1) as follows:

H_0 : There is no significant statistical relationship between variables measuring the drivers of brand loyalty to men's deodorant brands.

H_1 : There is a significant statistical relationship between variables measuring the drivers of brand loyalty to men's deodorant brands.

Furthermore, pursuant to objective 4 of this study, interrelationships between the twelve brand loyalty constructs are tested using t-Tests based on the following hypothesis:

H_0 : There are no significant mean differences between Gen X and Gen Y in how they perceive or accept the twelve drivers of brand loyalty

H_1 : There are significant mean differences between Gen X and Gen Y in the way they perceive the twelve drivers of brand loyalty.

1.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The ensuing ethical considerations were demonstrated and maintained by this study:

- Permission was obtained from the UCT research and ethics committee prior to the commencement of the study;
- Approval was obtained from the higher degrees committee at UCT before proceeding with the study;
- Consent from all respondents had to be obtained prior to commencing the study;
- Ensuring that the study did not subject respondents to harm that may be emotional or physical;
- Maintaining the privacy of the respondents by guaranteeing anonymity in the study.

These ethical considerations will be expanded in chapter four.

1.10 SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The scope and limitations of the study is highlighted in this section.

1.10.1 Scope

This study included Gen X and Gen Y consumers in Cape Town who are brand loyal to men's deodorants.

1.10.2 Limitations

The study cannot be generalised to the whole of South Africa as it was conducted in Cape Town. Constraints in time and finances ensured that the study could not be conducted to the whole of Cape Town. The multicultural diversity in South Africa ensures that it is challenging to generalise results to the entire country. The study primarily focused on men's deodorants and thus is not generalised to other products. Furthermore, the study is limited to men's deodorants utilised by Gen X and Gen Y consumers and cannot be generalised to deodorants used by women. Finally, due to demographic consideration, there was a glaring imbalance between the number of Gen X and Gen Y respondents.

1.11 CHAPTER ORGANISATION

This study is organised as follows:

Chapter One introduces the study briefly by presenting the purpose of the research and guides the researcher by highlighting the study's forthcoming chapters. The motivation for conducting this study is provided in this introductory chapter of the study, followed by the problem statement, research objectives, hypotheses, significance of the study and a brief outline of the research methodology.

Chapter Two presents the literature review and theoretical framework of the study. This chapter reviews the theoretical literature on brand loyalty and purchase intention. Furthermore, this framework utilises the brand loyalty framework, which has twelve influences of brand loyalty that are clarified in this study.

Chapter Three highlights this study's research methodology by detailing the research paradigm and research design; the strategy utilised by the research; collection of data, analysis of data and the statistical techniques.

Chapter Four highlights the presentation of the data collected and provides comprehensive findings analysed for the research. Additionally, the chapter describes the demographic profile of respondents, questionnaire validity, test of interrelationships between factors, result reliability achieved, the significance of the variables of research, the summary of the mean values and test of inter-generational mean difference.

Chapter Five presents the synopsis of the literature review findings and the research findings that were obtained. The chapter then provides the summaries, conclusions and recommendations. The recommendations for future research are also highlighted. The final conclusion is made showing how the aim and objectives of the study were accomplished.

1.12 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the introductory chapter presented the study in brief and a fundamental comprehension of the problem at hand. In addition, this chapter revealed that the brand loyalty framework was utilised, it mentions that the framework comprises of twelve influences and that a questionnaire was adapted to measure brand loyalty in the men's deodorant industry. The chapter also highlighted the background to the study by explaining the literature on brand loyalty. The research purpose and objectives were presented. The rationale for the study expanded on how this study can impact upon academic literature and the men's deodorant industry. The theoretical framework was briefly discussed. Moreover, the research design and methodology of the study is highlighted and lastly the arrangement of the following chapters was presented. In the following chapter, literature and theoretical works that underpin this study are discussed.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 DEODORANT INDUSTRY IN SOUTH AFRICA

In emerging markets, male grooming has grown due to an increase in individualism, urbanisation and disposable income (Spire Research, 2012). As a result, this growth in personal grooming and hygiene has led to a higher demand for deodorants by South Africans where deodorants also serve the purpose of being a fragrance for a multitude of customers. Deodorants are popular not only as an important personal hygiene product but as an alternative to fragrances, due to fragrances being moderately more expensive in the country (Euromonitor, 2017). Euromonitor (2019) also indicates that as a result of the weather in South Africa being hot and humid, local customers tend to use sprays and roll-ons, with the former being sprayed on clothes to perceive freshness during the day. Unilever is the category leader in the male grooming products industry. After doing so well in various markets internationally, it introduced to the South African market, its Dove and Men range (Euromonitor, 2013). Unilever also preserves its leadership in the deodorant industry through its popular brands of Dove, Shield and Axe. The established existence of these brands is due to its achievement as being perceived by customers as having value and excellence (Euromonitor, 2019). In 2012, Unilever confirmed a 30 percent value share in the male grooming products market, due mostly to its leading position in men's deodorants, offering leading brands such as Brut, Axe and Shield. Additionally, in 2015, Unilever was the clear category leader in deodorants with a 40 percent overall value sales (Euromonitor, 2015). The next leading company is Designer Group holdings with a combined share value of 10 percent, due to the accomplishments of its Status brand in men's deodorants. The third leading brand is Gillette with a 9 percent share in the men's deodorant (Pharmaceutical & Cosmetic Review, 2013). The year 2015 saw an increase in the awareness in skin care amongst South African men; this was indicated by a notable 8 percent in CAGR in retail volume. South African men in 2016 spent US\$564.2m on grooming products, although it is a moderately new market segment; it benefited from an increased interest in skin care products (Jenvy, 2017). The deodorants industry in South Africa is still controlled by international firms and is expected to remain so in the future, given the current economic climate, which may

lead to a decrease in brand loyalty and brand switching influencing the performance of some deodorants. (Euromonitor, 2019).

2.2 BRAND

Keller (2008) defines a brand as “A set of mental associations, held by the consumer, which add to the perceived value of a product or service. It is more than a product, because it can have dimensions that differentiate it in some way from other products designed to satisfy the same need”. A brand is “A name, term, design, symbol, or any other feature that identifies one seller's good or service as distinct from those of other sellers. The legal term for brand is trademark. A brand may identify one item, a family of items, or all items of that seller” (Cohen, 2011). Keller (2008) also states that a brand is “a name, sign, symbol, or design, or a combination of them, intended for the goods and services of one seller or group of sellers to differentiate them from other sellers competitively”). A brand is “A name, term, design, symbol, or a combination of them, intended to identify the goods or services of one seller or group of sellers and to differentiate them from competitors”. Meaning that it is a way in which to differentiate a brand from its competitors via the conception of a logo and visual attributes (de Chernatony & Riley, 1998). Tybout & Calkins (2005) define a brand as “a set from which a particular product is related, such as name, symbol and sensory quality of a product or service”. Godin (2009) states “A brand is the set of expectations, memories, stories and relationships that, taken together, account for a consumer's decision to choose one product or service over another. If the consumer (whether it's a business, a buyer, a voter or a donor) doesn't pay a premium, make a selection or spread the word, then no brand value exists for that consumer”. On the other hand, Finkle (2015) indicates that “A brand is how you or your company is perceived in the eyes of your customers. Good brands can create a lasting mental footprint in the customer's mind.”

Stewart (2010) states that a brand is the amount perceived that are assumed about a product, company or person; inclusive of internal and external stakeholders and spectators. In order for a brand to be successful, it needs long term investment and cautious preparation as well as providing an excellent service or product which has been marketed effectively and designed creatively (Berry & Seltman, 2008). Moolla

(2010) states besides protecting brands professional marketers obtain an important distinguishing skill which includes enhancing, maintaining and creating brands.

2.3 DIMENSIONS OF A BRAND

Moolla (2010) states that various models of brands have developed with each model containing distinct dimensions. The Burnett model highlighted in Figure 2.1 is prevalent and is a regularly cited model of brand dimensions.

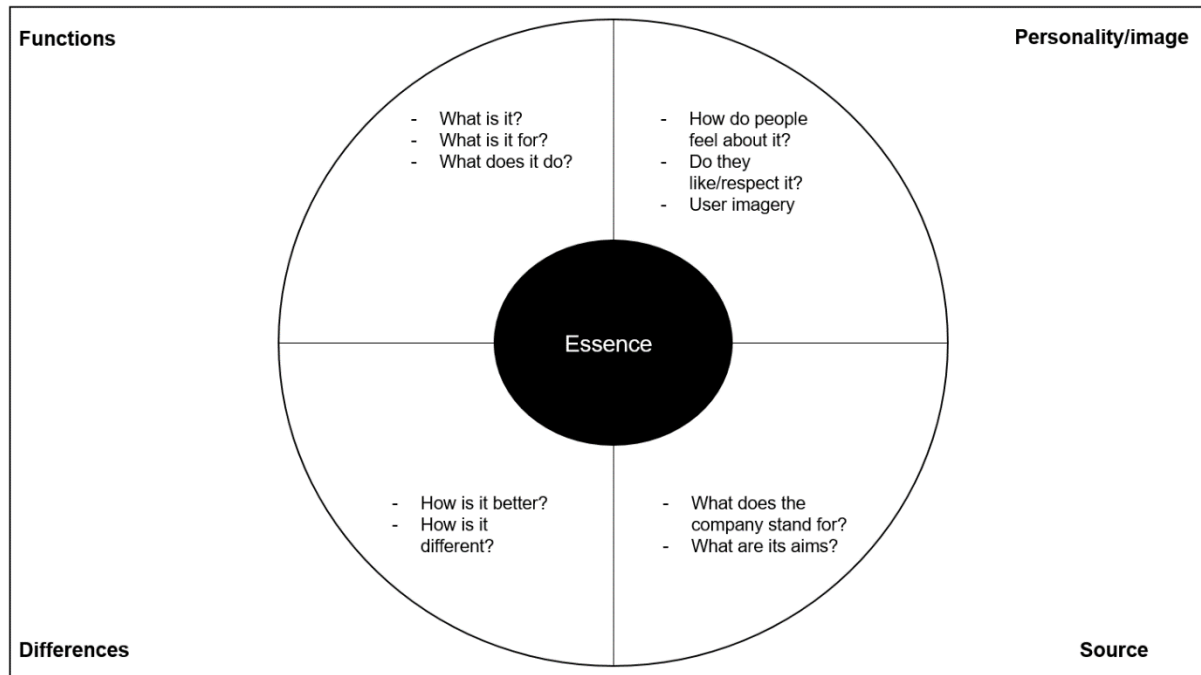


Figure 2.1: The Burnett model of brand dimensions (Randall, 2001)

Moolla (2010) indicates that Functions, Differences, Source and Personality/Image form the four dimensions of a brand highlighted in Burnett's model and is perceived as being the essence of the brand. A brand's identity strengthens when there is support and consistency among dimensions (Randall, 2001).

Kapferer (2004) suggests a model with matching dimensions in Figure 2.2: Self-image, personality, relationship, reflection, culture and physique. Kapferer's prism of identity portrays the preceding six aspects of brand identity:

- a) Self-Image: is the core form of reflection.
- b) Personality: a direct feature that is commonly utilised as a focal dimension in FMCG markets for years.

- c) Relationship: brands tend to be at the centre of dealings and connections among individuals.
- d) Refection: the kind of customer that the brand looks to have targeted may not essentially be identical to the target market of the brand.
- e) Culture: this may be part of the parent company or brand.
- f) Physique: is the brands purpose and it is more than just the brands external features. Physique is the major aim of the brand and is equal to “What does it do” in the Burnett model.

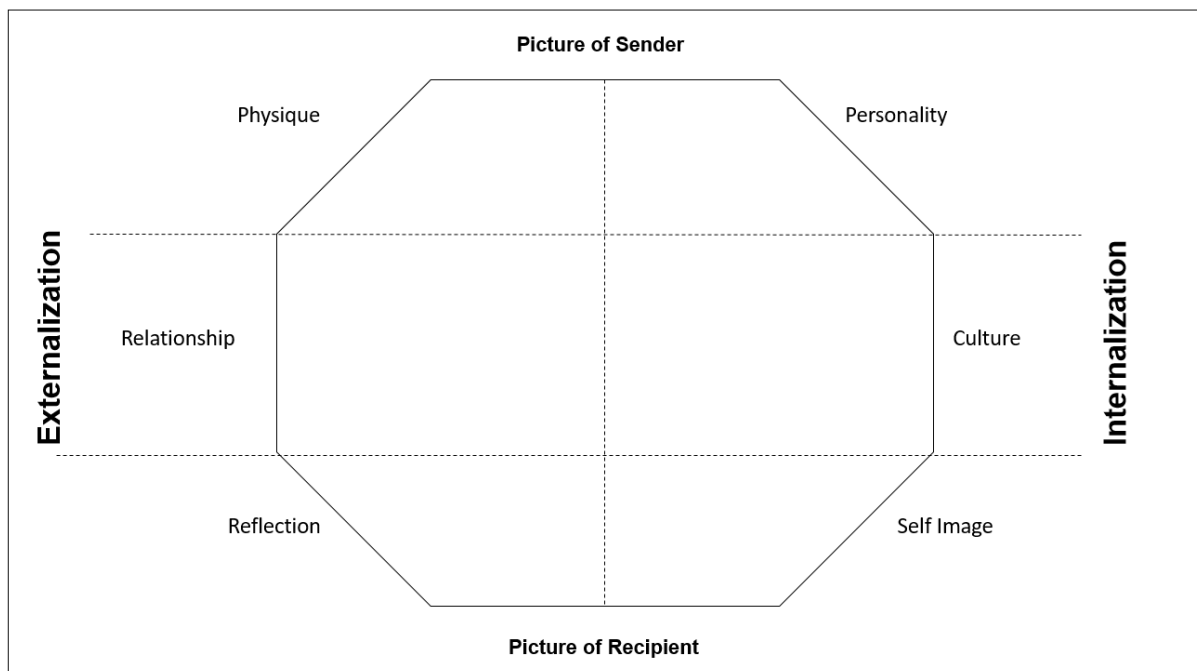


Figure 2.2: Kapferer's prism of identity (Kapferer, 1992)

2.4 BRAND EQUITY

Aaker (1991) defines brand equity as a group of assets and liabilities that connect to a brand and also perhaps its brand name or symbol which may decrease or increase the overall value for its products or services. Moreover, brand equity is a notion that is multidimensional and it can be divided into five components that are: brand loyalty, brand awareness, brand association, perceived quality and other assets that have been associated with a brand such as trademarks or patents. Keller (2003) states that brand equity can be viewed as a core concept that shows the power of a brand that dwells in the hearts and minds of customers. In addition, brand equity can be characterised as a financial based equity and a customer based equity. Financial

based equity that relays the financial value produced and the added cash flow created (Chen, Chen & Huang, 2012). Customer based equity focuses on the increased value added to a product by the high calibre of its brand (Aaker, 1991). Moolla (2010) describes brand equity as the marketing results that grow with a product's brand name in comparison to the same product without a brand name. Thus, brand equity is determined by consumer knowledge. Furthermore, Moolla (2010) states that brand knowledge comprises of every feeling, image, thought, belief and experience linked to the brand.

Two approaches of measuring brand equity were identified by Kotler and Keller (2006) which are:

- a) The indirect approach- focuses on the likely sources of brand equity by recognising and tracking the structure of the consumer brand knowledge.
- b) The direct approach- focuses on the real impact of brand knowledge on the consumer response to various marketing aspects.

Moolla (2010) mentions that both these approaches can be used by marketers and they are complementary, it is crucial for marketers to note the importance of the factors of brand equity and recognize the sources of brand equity as well as how they influence results of significance; including how these outcomes and sources change in due course. Aaker (1991) and Keller (2008) state that brand equity can be obtained through growth of sources or components.

2.5 BRAND POSITIONING

Kotler (2003) describes positioning as “the act of designing the company's offering: an image to occupy a distinct place in the mind of the target market”. Kapferer (2004) also states that “Positioning is the act of designing the company's offering and image to occupy a distinctive place in the mind of the target market”. Kotler and Keller (2006) state positioning is when a firm identifies various categories and needs. These needs and categories are targeted in order to gratify them greatly, this ensures that there is a distinction in the firms offering and image by the way the offering is positioned and perceived by the target market. Kapferer (2004) indicates that it is prevalent to distinguish between brands relative to their positioning and underlining the distinct features of the brand permit it to be attractive to customers and differentiate them from

their competition. Kapferer (2004) maintains that brand positioning is founded on four questions as highlighted in Figure 2.3.

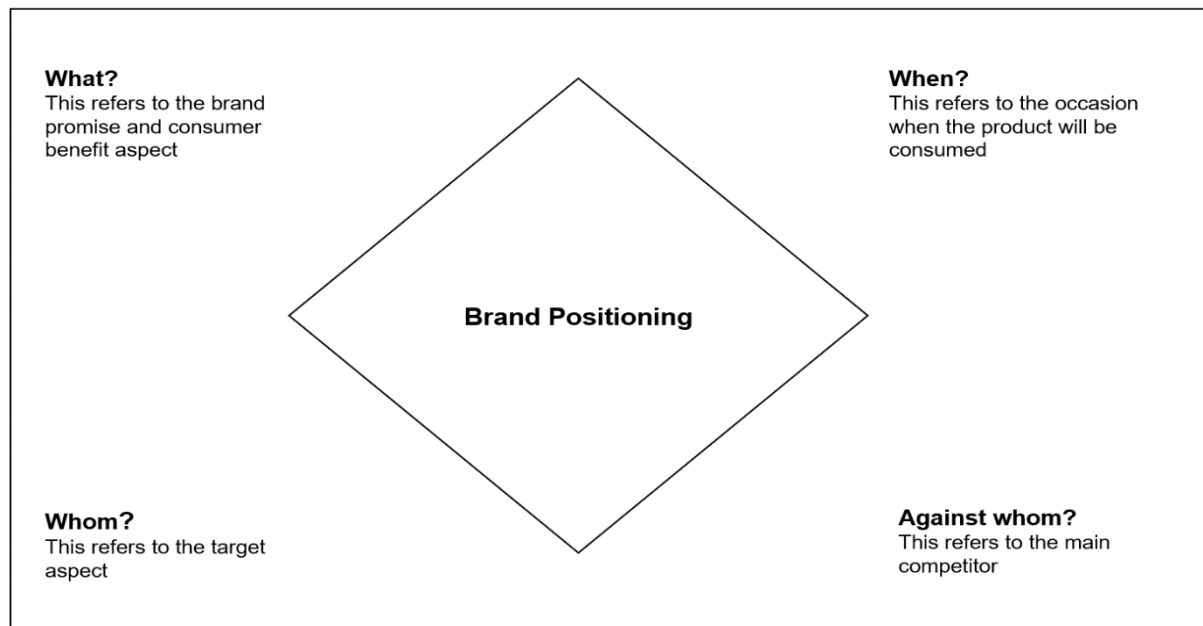


Figure 2.3: Brand positioning (Kapferer, 2004)

A firm that positions itself well can focus on its other marketing planning and differentiation from its positioning strategy (Kapferer, 2004). A firm should aim to have its brand in consumers' minds in order to capitalize on the prospective benefits. Moreover, good positioning aids by directing marketing strategy by demonstrating the essence of the brand, the objectives it assists consumers in obtaining and by achieving so in a manner that is distinctive (Rith, 2009).

2.6 BRAND PREFERENCE

Brand preference is defined as the stage that paves the way towards brand loyalty and it discusses the procedures to which customers decide on specific brands amidst opposing brands nonetheless they will use alternatives if their desired brand is unattainable (Truong, Mccoll & Kitchen, 2010). Alreck and Settle (1999) suggest that the preferences and tastes towards a brand or product by a customer can be constructed from one or more of these six distinctive modes:

- a) Need association- The brand or product is connected to one need via a recurrent link.
- b) Mood association- The mood is connected to a brand or product via a recurrent link.

- c) Subconscious motivation- Symbols that are redolent are utilised to entice the subliminal drives of customers.
- d) Behaviour modification- Influencing reminders and incentives are used to condition customers to purchase a brand.
- e) Cognitive processing- Discerning and intellectual hindrances are infiltrated in order to generate attitudes that are flattering.
- f) Model emulation- Realistic societal living models are bestowed to customers to imitate.

Alreck and Settle (1999) mention that even though various customers can produce similar preferences to a specific brand via different modes, some modes are immensely more efficacious for a particular product or service than others.

2.7 BRAND LOYALTY

Brand loyalty has generated a lot of interest from academics and marketers as it is an important depiction in understanding the brand choices of customers (Jensen & Hansen, 2006). Brand loyalty is a pledge to frequently purchase a favoured brand over time than switching to a competitor's brand (Wankel, 2009). The same brand is purchased frequently due to brand loyal consumers' certainty about their judgements towards the brand as well as being less price sensitive and having a commitment to the price appeal and value (Kruger et al., 2013). Ishak and Ghani (2013) argue that brand loyalty is when consumers prefer to purchase a specific brand in a product category and it allows them to have a perception that the brand has the exact level of quality for the precise price, image and features. Furthermore, this perception results in brand loyalty due to repeat purchase as a customer's brand loyalty is associated with their preference and connection to a specific brand; ensuring prolonged usage as a consequence of the customer's trust and history with the brand (Ishak & Ghani, 2013).

In order for customers' to be considered as loyal they need to aspire for a particular brand and this will ensure that there is brand loyalty, as there is a lasting relationship between a brand and a customer. Therefore, brand loyalty is a reflection of a customer's efficient and regular purchase of a specific brand with regards to a connection with brands and their commitment to a specific brand (Liu, 2008; Kruger et

al., 2013). Brand loyalty refers to decisions made by consumers consciously or unconsciously, conveyed via behaviour or intention, to continuously purchase a brand. Brand loyalty transpires due to the perception of a customer to a brand as presenting the level of quality at the right price, image and product features (Moolla, 2010). Likewise, Latif, Islam and Noor (2014) state that the conscious or unconscious decision expressed by the customer's intention is to decisively repurchase a brand as long as the brand offers the right level of quality, price, image and product features; they may recommend the brand to others as well. To create brand loyalty, marketers need to break habits of customers, assist them to acquire new habits and underline these new habits by reminding them and encouraging future purchase of their products. To further add, the vital purpose of marketers is to sustain brand loyalty (Moolla, 2010). Nevertheless, Latif, Islam and Noor (2014) state brand loyalty in the customers' perspective is placed in three categories, which are:

- a) Cognitive- expresses the confidence of the customer towards a brand that is perceived to be superior by them in relation to competing brands in the same product category.
- b) Affective- conveys the attitude a brand receives from a customer.
- c) Connotative- stipulates the intention by the customer to repurchase a specific brand

This means that the purpose of brand loyalty is to build strong relationships with consumers and sustain these relationships for the foreseeable future, this is also known as consumer relationship management. Thus, creating familiarity, customer satisfaction, trust and attitudinal loyalty for the brand. (Latif, Islam & Noor, 2014).

2.8 TYPES OF BRAND LOYALTY

Moolla (2010) states that strong competition has enabled brand loyalty to be an important part of business and marketers should not only focus on capturing brand loyalists but that they should also regard the different types of brand loyalty available to them. The main types of loyalty as stated by Moolla (2010) are described below:

2.8.1 Transactional loyalty

Moolla (2010) states that transactional loyalty is when a repeat purchase is made exclusive of any contractual commitment and loyalty relies on certain aspects such as

ease, value perception and price. Customers may switch brands at any moment with no hesitation if they come across a better deal. Transactional loyalty is simply enthused via reward or promotional programs and to extent mechanisms that are not central may be used; it is very challenging to maintain loyalty at a satisfactory level of profit (Ahuvia, 2005).

2.8.2 Contractual loyalty

Moolla (2010) describes contractual loyalty as a form of brand loyalty that is dependent on purchases that require a formal agreement; typically occurring in a business-to-business setting. Aurifeille, Svizzero and Tisdell (2005) indicate that contractual loyalty generally relates to a consumer setting via mobile telephones, broadband services, newspapers or magazines. Also, it is essential to note that contractual loyalty can also cause customers to be dissatisfied as they might feel ensnared in the arranged business (Molla, 2010).

2.8.3 Functional loyalty

A customer who has functional loyalty is portrayed as having a perception towards a product's features as being superior and therefore favourable (Moolla, 2010). Kim, Morris and Swait (2008) explain that functional loyalty is the initial expectation of attempting to distinguish; by offering customers something that is tangible, deliberately different nevertheless significant to the purchase category and a segment of the market can prioritise the advantaged function.

2.8.4 Emotional loyalty

Moolla (2010) depicts emotional loyalty as an aspect of loyalty that has to do with "feeling" and customers increase their preference for a service or product in accordance to their individual ego, value, other intangibles or emotional response. McKean (2010) suggests that a major advantage of emotional loyalty is that customers who have this kind of loyalty are forgiving in mistakes that are minor in their understanding and will continue on building a relationship ensuring its capacity to resist a dispute to a service or economic relationship. To further add, to various marketers, emotional loyalty is viewed as the "Holy grail" as it is very sought after but tends to not be obtained (Hartel & Bennett, 2010). In addition, McKean (2010) states

that emotional loyalty tends to be linked with influential brands that offer price premiums and lack distinguishing elements in value, function, convenience and form.

2.8.5 Spurious loyalty

Moolla (2010) defines spurious loyalty as purchases that are repeated devoid of an optimistic outlook and as such repeated purchases are dependent on accessibility to convenience, deals, other peoples' influence and special offers. Literature states that customers possessing spurious loyalty exude positive attitude towards a specific brand (Harvey, 2017). Although spuriously loyal customers are likely to purchase similar products from competitors; seeking the gratification of popular and fashionable products that are trendy, similarly influenced by price.

2.8.6 Latent loyalty

Moolla (2010) explains latent loyalty as an occurrence in which a customer has a relatively high outlook to a brand although their purchasing behaviour does not indicate loyalty; this is accredited to certain circumstances for instance other peoples' influences, out-of-stock conditions or inconvenient store sites. Harvey (2017) states that these customers have attitudinal behaviour that is very positive to a specific brand, although their purchase behaviour is weak and this is challenging for marketers as some factors such as unemployment or reduced disposable income is beyond their control.

2.8.7 No loyalty

No loyalty is described as a kind of loyalty in which there is no purchase and an absolute lack of regard towards the brand; no social pressures exist to be loyal to a brand (Moolla, 2010). Harvey (2017) states that these customers have attitudinal and behavioural attitudes that are weak towards certain brands, their purchase decisions depend on a wide array of influences such as convenience, on-the-spot discounts, strategic product placement and spur-of-the-moment purchasing.

2.8.8 Covetous loyalty

Moolla (2010) states that similar to "no loyalty", covetous loyalty has no purchase but differs in that an individual displays a relative high level of regard towards a brand and

has an optimistic inclination towards the brand that has been built from a social setting. Moolla (2010) states that because of this, consumers will be disheartened towards being loyal to the brand due to the influence of society.

2.8.9 Inertia loyalty

Inertia loyalty is illustrated as a kind of loyalty in which an individual does not have a social reason or an emotional connection with a brand but purchases the brand due to convenience, inclination or another basis; to a degree it is a connection based on habit, it is detached and convenience motivated (Moolla, 2010).

2.8.10 Premium loyalty

An individual that displays a high level of connection towards a brand, influenced highly by social demands and high order of repeat purchase is known as having a premium loyalty (Shukla, 2009). A premium loyalist is known as having the largest level of connection towards a brand and will prevail over barriers by tenaciously seeking out the purchase of that specific brand (Moolla, 2010). This loyalty drives people to incur several costs to purchase their preferred brand and individuals that have premium loyalty to a brand have been convinced by the alternative to the brand by the value they obtain or they have been persuaded by the brand they have chosen (Griffin, 2009).

2.9 TYPES OF BRAND LOYALTY CUSTOMERS

Many authors have strived to categorise consumers in accordance to their level of loyalty. Aaker (1991) cited by Scholtz (2014) view consumers in five levels of brand loyalty and consumers are categorized into a loyalty pyramid.

- a) Switcher- these are consumers that are at the base of the pyramid. They include consumers who are indifferent, lack brand loyalty and are price sensitive as well.
- b) Habitual- are consumers whose loyalty is linked to habit and a willingness to not change.
- c) Satisfied- these are a group of consumers that are satisfied with the costs of switching, they would rather not risk changing brands and can be termed as habitual buyers.

- d) Likers- also known as brand likers, they have an emotional connection to the brand as they are brand fanatics.
- e) Committed- these are consumers that are at the top of the tier. They include consumers who will switch brands when they are enforced by external factors that are too great. Figure 2.4 below indicates the five levels of brand loyalty

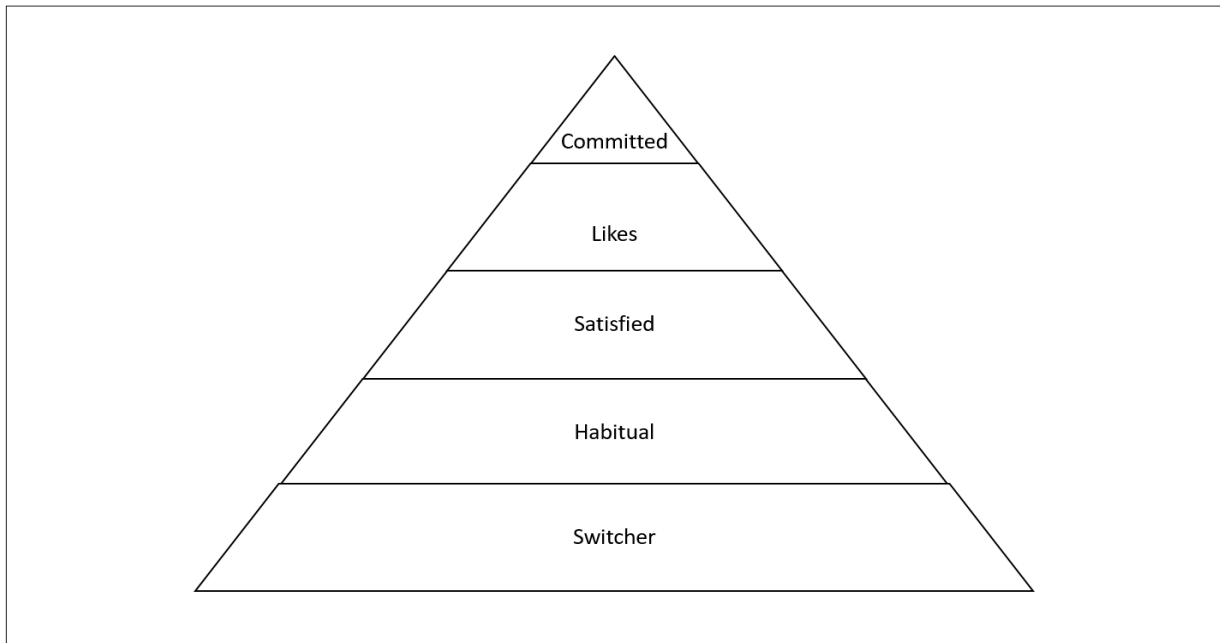


Figure 2.4: Five levels of brand loyalty (Aaker, 1991)

Rowley (2005) cited by Scholtz (2014) suggest four types of loyal customers being; captive, convenience-seeker, contented and committed.

2.9.1 Four types of loyal customers

According to Scholtz (2014), there are four types of loyal customers: captive, convenience seekers, contented and committed.

2.9.1.1 Captive

Scholtz (2014) states that captive customers do not have any other option but to remain loyal because of external factors (i.e. product or service monopoly) and they tend to be loyal due to the high costs of switching brands. Moreover, captive customers tend to switch brands for only a few reasons and they are impartial to brands. Reasons they tend to switch include; changes in personal circumstances (i.e. finances), new

attractive entrants to the market and a great decision that is to be made (Rowley, 2005).

2.9.1.2 Convenience seekers

Convenience seekers have been defined as customers who are recognized as making routine and low-involvement purchases, their major drive to revisit a store is due to proximity and habitual repurchasing. Likewise, they tend to be impartial to brands and their emotions is overshadowed by convenience (Scholtz, 2014). However, Rowley (2005) highlights that these customers are susceptible to the advertising campaigns of competing brands and will simply switch brands if it is more convenient.

2.9.1.3 Contented

These are customers that are pleased with their brand purchase but they will not engage in purchasing other product categories of the specific brand (Scholtz, 2014). Rowley (2005) states that they have a positive behaviour to the brand, they will deliberately switch if they can locate a better value but will switch due to failure of the product or an innovative product enters the market.

2.9.1.4 Committed

Committed customers are viewed as having positive behaviour to the product and purchase irrespective of situations, they are a valuable benefit to a brand as they actively participate in word-of-mouth marketing (Scholtz, 2014). Rowley (2005) highlights that they will only switch after an exceptionally negative experience or when a product enters the market and offers more value or benefits.

2.10 BRAND LOYALTY CONCEPTS

Moolla (2010) suggests that brand loyalty occurs when consumers intentionally select a brand from a group of alternative brands and that brand loyalists will not choose a brand via the decision process. Additionally, Jacoby and Chestnut (1978) cited by Moolla (2010) offer the following concepts of brand loyalty that are:

2.10.1 Brand loyalty as a biased response

This concept recommends that there is a propensity to be efficient in purchasing a certain brand or category of brands. The rate of reaction is constant towards the process in which the brand is selected by a consumer with the likelihood that it is separate to the decisions made by them in the past (Bloemer & Kasper 1995; Moolla, 2010).

2.10.2 Brand loyalty as a behavioural response

Brand loyalty is influenced by the actual behaviour of a consumer conveyed over time and that the degree of behavioural loyalty functions on the base of the declaration of attitudinal loyalty nevertheless it has been adapted to label the actual repurchase and commend behaviour instead of intention (Musa, 2005). Moolla (2010) mentions that customers act loyal once they: purchase again; purchase more; purchase more frequently; and purchase other product offerings. Furthermore, loyal behaviour generates a continuous sequence of action and incentives concerning satisfaction resulting in an approach that drives behaviours that is positive once more. This response of behaviour is also known as the process of “brand learning” (Moolla, 2010).

2.10.3 Brand loyalty expressed over time

A supplementary prejudice to a brand will not lead to the assurance of brand loyalty and the method is vigorous in that steadiness is required during a specific period of time. It is proposed that the amount of times a particular brand is purchased during a specific period of time should not solely be considered, nonetheless the pattern of purchase over the successful purchase times should be deliberated as well (Kumar, Luthra & Datta, 2006; Moolla, 2010).

2.10.4 Brand loyalty as a decision making unit

Brand loyalty is explained as a pattern of purchase by a firm, household or individual; it is very vital to understand that the decision unit is not actually limited to the actual purchaser of the brand. For example, fast moving consumer goods tend to be purchased by either parent and another member of the household can participate in the decision process as well (Baker & Hart 2007; Moolla 2010).

2.10.5 Selection of brands

This fifth concept entails selecting one or more brands from a group of brands, majority of researchers have indicated that there is an implication that consumers do not restrict themselves to solely being loyal to a specific brand (Moolla, 2010). This is true for low involvement products as the consumer tends not to continuously assess brands, yet they can categorise it subtly as either being satisfactory or unsatisfactory. Moreover, this condition suggests that the requirement of achieving brand loyalty is that there needs to be a prospect in choosing between brand alternatives (Jarvis, Rungie & Lockshin, 2007; Moolla, 2010).

2.10.6 Function of a psychological process

Psychological (evaluative, decision-making) processes are the task of brand loyalty, meaning that even though consumers are not constantly actively searching for information on brands, they can inadvertently obtain some information such as through advertised promotions that could be used as a way of developing some beliefs about brands (Moolla, 2010). The significance of commitment is not upheld by some scholars such as Foxall (2002) who disputes that the purchasing behaviour of consumers is due to instrumental conditioning and these kind of scholars theorize that a behaviour that is solely observed is able to explain brand loyalty. This view suggests that purchasing the brand will result in a reward (brand is sufficient) or punishment (brand is insufficient); the former inspires the brand to be reinforced leading to repurchase and the latter inspires cognitive discord leading to conflicting thoughts and brand switching (Moolla, 2010).

2.11 MODELS TO MEASURE BRAND LOYALTY

Du Plooy (2012) mentions that the notion of brand loyalty is developed and measured in three stages: Brand loyalty as a one-dimensional concept; brand loyalty as a two-dimensional concept; and brand as a multi-dimensional concept. Du Plooy (2012) highlights the Punniyamoorthy and Ray (2007) and the Roy (2011) models as essential to measuring brand loyalty.

2.11.1 Punniyamoorthy and Raj (2007) model of brand loyalty

Punniyamoorthy and Raj (2007) developed a model in order to measure brand loyalty. This model can be depicted as a multidimensional construct that comprises of a behavioural purchase loyalty and an attitudinal commitment, given that the consumption of the brand is done by a consumer that has a strong psychological attachment. The nine influences that were identified are: involvement, functional value, price worthiness, emotional value, social value, brand trust, customer satisfaction, commitment and purchase pattern. Figure 2.5 indicates the model for measuring brand loyalty. Moolla indicates the Punniyamoorthy and Raj (2007) model has a crucial part in the influence of brand loyalty and includes some of these 9 influences that were deemed reliable, valid and most frequently utilised in other brand loyalty models and included them in Moolla's (2010) framework for measuring brand loyalty.

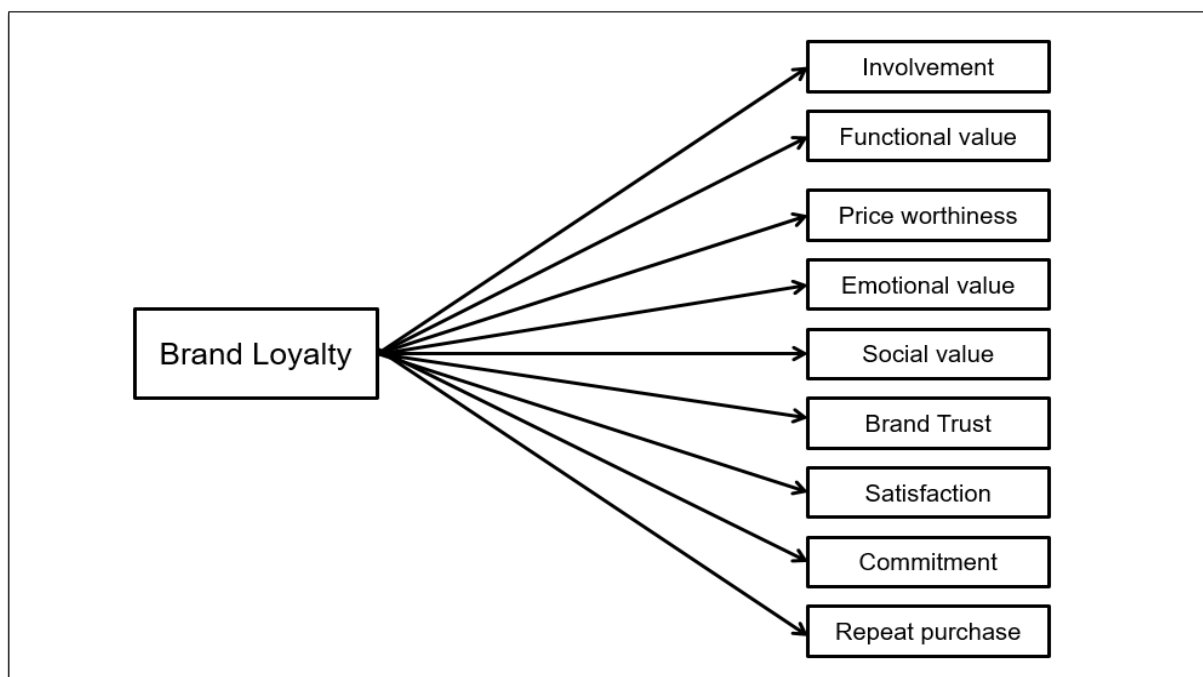


Figure 2.5: Model for measuring brand loyalty (Punniyamoorthy & Raj, 2007)

2.11.2 Roy's three dimensional model of brand loyalty

Roy (2011) indicates that when approaching brand loyalty, theorists have primarily focused on models that are either single-dimensional or two-dimensional. A model that is two-dimensional entails influences on brand loyalty that are attitudinal and behavioural. Behavioural loyalty towards a brand is centred on the action of repurchase whilst attitudinal loyalty is explained as the pledge consumers make to

repetitively purchase a brand. Furthermore, Roy (2011) states that even though the two-dimension model has been useful in the past it has not been an efficient measure for the three prime marketing results, which are the search, recommendation and retention of consumers. Roy established a tri-dimensional approach in order to measure brand loyalty. According to Roy (2011) the model consists of behavioural loyalty and two elements of brand attitudinal loyalty which are: cognitive and emotional loyalty. Furthermore, Roy (2011) indicates that the tri-dimensional model he established is a comprehensive adaptation of Oliver's (1999) conceptual work that is inclusive of an emotional loyalty and cognitive loyalty collectively through behavioural loyalty.

According to Du Plooy (2012), the behaviour of human beings is a compilation of three types of response specifically emotion, cognition and behaviour. Positive thoughts when purchasing a specific brand is known as emotional loyalty, cognitive loyalty is comprised of information for instance product features or product price and loyalty based on behaviour is distinguished as the preference to brands (Roy, 2011). Furthermore, Du Plooy (2012) indicates that brand loyalty of consumers towards a specific brand is a mixture of their beliefs and feelings. Figure 2.6 below indicates the relationship between behavioural loyalty, cognitive loyalty and emotional loyalty. Moolla (2010) indicates that perceived value consists of two dominant influences, which are price worthiness and functional value, social and emotional value. Cognitive loyalty is represented by price worthiness and functional value, and emotional loyalty is embodied by emotional value in the influence, perceived value, in the brand loyalty framework of Moolla (2010).

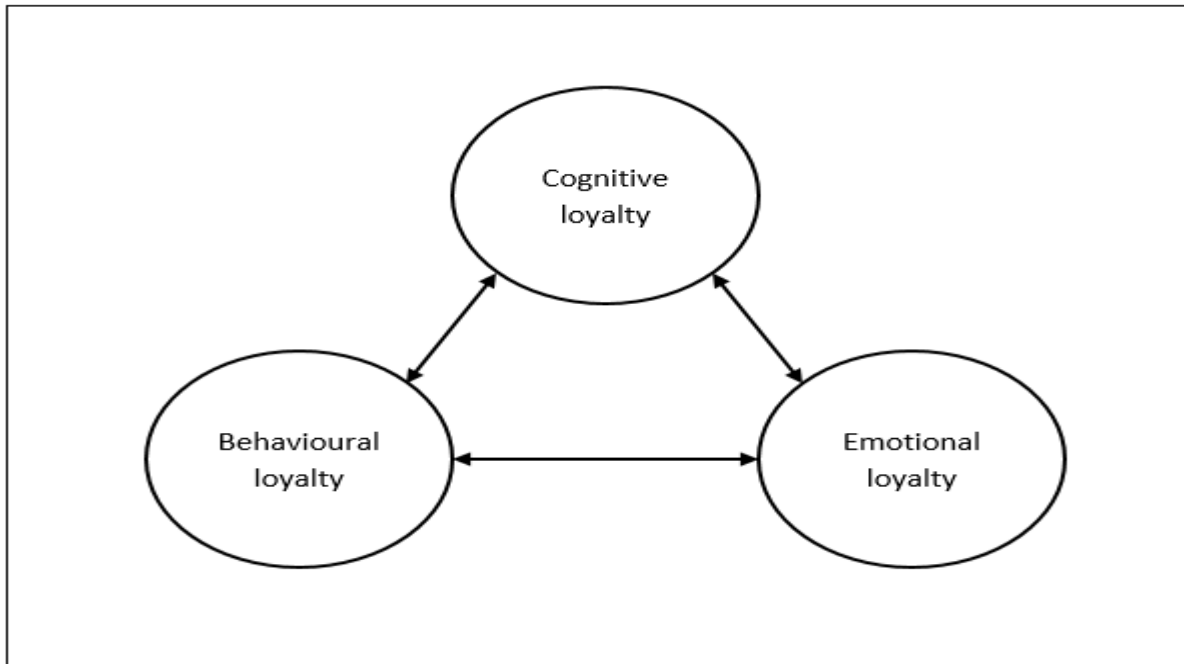


Figure 2.6: Three-dimensional model of brand loyalty (Roy, 2011)

2.12 BRAND LOYALTY BENEFITS

Moolla (2010) states that the benefits in traditional consumer marketing that are enjoyed by brands with a customer loyalty that is strong include:

2.12.1 Higher sales volume

A major factor currently facing organisations is the loss of customers. An average company loses half of its customers every five years; leading to an annual loss of 13 percent of customers. This indicates the issues that organisations run into when wanting to grow in a competitive environment. In order to achieve a one percent annual growth, an increase in sales by 14 percent is needed from current or new customers. This means that not only does enhancing the loyalty of a brand towards customers improve the rate of retention but it also aides in growing the business (Giddens, 2010).

2.12.2 Premium pricing ability

Brand loyalists are willing to pay a premium price for brands that they prefer since they have a perceived value that alternative brands might not offer them and generally, brand loyalists will less frequently purchase products that are on promotion such as cents-off deals (Moolla, 2010).

2.12.3 Retain rather than seek customer retention

Customers that are loyal to their brand are willing to pursue their favourite brand and costs will be lowered due to this inelasticity. Thus, it is easier to reinforce behaviour than to change it; a sale is an opening to change a purchaser into a brand loyalist (Giddens, 2010).

2.12.4 Creating perceptions

The perception of a product for a customer can be directly influenced by the price and quality of a product, the perception that premium pricing creates is that there is great value for a customer if the product is of high quality (Gregg & Walczak, 2010). It is significant to indicate that the impact of product price is related to the condition of the customer and time that is accessible to seek for substitute products. Thus, organisations and brand managers need to keep this in mind when allocating brand prices (Du Plooy, 2012).

2.12.5 Referrals

Moolla (2010) states positive word of mouth referrals will be generated through loyal customers that have satisfaction and consequently operate as the organisations representatives. Moreover, this will be advantageous to organizations' because it will reduce customer acquisition costs as well as decrease advertising costs (Du Plooy, 2012).

2.12.6 Increased usage and spending

Customer usage of a product is positively affected by perceived quality and customers usually tend to purchase specific brands that they perceive to be of high quality; thus leading to repeat purchasing or brand loyalty. Customers will purchase brands due to rewarding that espouse good experiences rather than repeating the evaluation process time and again (Moolla, 2010).

2.12.7 Financial benefits

The benefit of customer loyalty is that it is cumulative and lasting; a business becomes more profitable from an individual the longer a customer remains loyal. Additionally, extra financial benefits to the business include the capability to charge premium prices,

grow base profit, referrals, revenue growth and cost saving (Moolla, 2010). A study done by Bain & Co. indicated that a growth in customer loyalty by 1 percent can reduce costs by 10 percent and a 5 percent growth in customer loyalty can increase the organisations profitability by 0 to 95 percent (Kim, Morris & Swait, 2008; Moolla, 2010).

2.12.8 Contributing to the return on investment (ROI) and enhanced return

It is perceived that the product's value or quality significantly contributes to the return on investment to an organisation than the share of the market, promotion of costs or the development of products. Hence, an increase in the perception of the quality of a brand will indirectly lead to an organisation increasing their ROI (Aaker, 2012).

2.13 PURCHASE INTENTION

Purchase intention is the likelihood that a specific brand will be purchased by a customer in a product category (Crosno, Freling, & Skinner 2009). The prospect that a customer will purchase a certain brand is known as purchase intention and it is the degree to which a customer purchases a specific brand, refusing to switch to competing brands (Naeini, Azali, & Tamaddoni 2015). Purchase intention is the implicit pledge an individual undertakes to repurchase a product on the subsequent journey to the market (Halim & Hameed, 2005; Fandos & Flavian, 2006). Purchase intention is decision making that focuses on the motives that customers have for purchasing a specific brand (Shah et al., 2012). Marketing managers regularly measure and utilise purchase intentions as a contribution for decision making about new and existing products or services. In some instances, purchase intentions is utilised in measuring the demand by customers via concept and product tests; these tests evaluate whether an adequate quantity of customers will purchase a new product to gratify its introduction and in what way to utilise the fundamentals of marketing mix to increase sales (Morwitz, 2012). Naeini, Azali and Tamaddoni (2015) state that purchase intention is the "single best predictor of a person's behaviour, it is the measure of his intention to do that behaviour". Wu, Yeh and Hsiao (2011) indicate that the intention to purchase is a vital indicator of the behaviour of consumers as it signifies the probability that customers plan to or are prepared to purchase a specific brand in the future. Morwitz (2012) suggests that marketing managers also use purchase intentions

as a primary indicator for future demand for their brands and to evaluate in what way their marketing activities will influence future sales.

Purchase intentions is one of the core notions found in marketing literature and the interest generated by marketing scholars to purchase intention is due to its relationship with purchase behaviour. Numerous studies have conveyed a positive relationship between purchase intentions and purchase behaviour (Morwitz & Schmittlein, 1992; Morwitz, Steckel & Gupta, 1996). Naeini, Azali and Tamaddoni (2015) suggest that there is empirical research that indicates that when a particular brand has been used by a customer, it increases their inclination and probability that they will purchase that specific brand in the future. Dehghani and Tumer (2015) reveal that the decision to purchase a brand by customers is basically dependent on the value of the brand and the recommendations given to them by other customers. Wang and Tsai (2014) state a high inclination does not guarantee a purchase and a low inclination does not guarantee that there is no absolute impossibility that a purchase is made. On the basis of a recognised attitude theory, the theory of reasoned action, Muhammed, Hamad and Shabir (2014) state the intent in doing something is due to an inclination of the factors of subjective norms and attitude towards behaviour. Attitude is an outcome of beliefs in the direction of behaviour and it is identified that the more positive an individual's belief instigated by the attitude towards an object, the more positive the attitude of an individual towards that object. Additionally, the theory of reasoned action determines that subjective norms are the rudimentary elements of intention formation and it clarifies that individuals aim to achieve a behaviour that is acknowledged by the general public (Meskaran, Ismail & Shanmugam, 2013).

2.14 MODEL OF CONSUMER PURCHASE DECISION MAKING

Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (1995) cited by Kotler and Armstrong (2010) introduced a well-known model known as the model of consumer purchase decision-making. This model is essential to purchase intention because it describes the steps taken before a decision is made whether to purchase a brand or not and the step after the decision is made. These steps also indicate at what juncture customers are loyal to a brand such as whether it is to buy a specific brand when a problem is recognised. The consumer purchase decision process is split into five stages namely:

2.14.1 Problem recognition

Kotler and Armstrong (2010) state that this buying process begins when a buyer understands that there is a need or problem; there is a sufficient gap between the actual and desired state of consumers to allow consumers to try and close the gap. Lombardo (2018) states that problem recognition is the first stage in the process where consumers understand that they have a need for something and this need can happen straightaway, consumers experience a very simple impulse. Afton (2013) states that problem recognition is an outcome of inconsistency between an actual state and a desired state. The actual state is the method in which feelings and current circumstances are perceived, the desired state is the method where individuals currently want to feel and be. In addition, the significance to the customer is a direct response to the type of act after a problem is recognized (Afton, 2013).

2.14.2 Information search

Lombardo (2018) states that in order to make a decision, consumers will search for information either internally or externally. Internal information search entails consumers using information from their past experiences with the product or through their memory whilst external information search entails consumers pursuing information from the outside environment. However, Kotler and Armstrong (2010) highlight that this stage does not happen all the time, consumers are willing to buy a product if they have a strong drive and the satisfactory product is close to them. If consumers have a weak drive, they might decide to store the need in their memory or look for information that can assist them in acquiring that need; if this leads to failure, they will search external sources.

2.14.3 Alternative evaluation

Dudovskiy (2013) states when consumers obtain sufficient information from the first stage, they then move onto the evaluation and comparison of the information in order to make the correct decision. Kotler and Armstrong (2010) state that the assessment of substitutes by consumers is to a degree dependent on the buyer and the circumstance, at times consumers might think logically and use calculation but purchase via impulse on another occasion; consumers might consult salespeople or consumer guides, friends or choose by themselves. On the other hand, Jones (2014)

specifies that even if some brands are more noticeable than others, it does not guarantee that consumers will purchase their products or services. Consumers are looking to research the product prior to purchasing it because even though they may be aware of what they want, they would need to ensure they have made the correct decision by comparing with other alternatives.

2.14.4 Purchase decision

Dudovskiy (2013) states that the consumer makes the purchasing decision when the information search and evaluation process ends, this stage is perceived to be the most significant in the entire process. Kotler and Armstrong (2010) indicate that this is an evaluation stage where consumers rate brands and form intentions to purchase by deciding to buy their preferred brand. In Contrast, Jones (2014) states at this stage consumers have already considered various other alternatives and that they are aware of the price and methods of payment, consumers can decide to move on with the purchase or choose not to; this is because there is still an opportunity for them to decide to walkway. Dudovskiy (2012) indicates that these influences play an important role in the selection of a retailer in which the purchase is based on past shopping experiences, store atmosphere, amount of time linked with the purchase and product return policy. Kotler and Armstrong (2010) agree that consumers may change their purchase decisions due to certain hindrances such as the attitudes of others, new circumstances i.e. a decrease in the price of competing brands or an unexpected lack of money might change the choice of buyers.

2.14.5 Post-purchase evaluation

Dudovskiy (2013) states post-purchase evaluation is the final stage of the consumer purchase decision process and that several companies often overlook this stage as it proceeds after the conclusion of business with consumers. Kotler and Armstrong (2010) highlight that the task of marketers is not completed as a result of the product being purchased by consumers rather after the purchase they can evaluate the post-purchase behaviour of whether they have satisfaction or dissatisfaction towards the performance of the product. Dudovskiy (2013) specifies that it is a vital stage as it directly impacts the purchase decision processes that consumers will make in the future about the specific product, revealing the experience of the purchasing of a

product or service by consumers. The thoughts of family, friends and peers in regard to the purchases made by consumers is identified as being a vital influence that has affected the result of the post purchase evaluation (Perrey & Spillecke, 2011). Dudovskiy (2013) stipulates that if consumers are satisfied there is a probability that there will be a repeat purchase and if they are dissatisfied they is improbability of purchasing the exact product from the exact seller or they may choose to not purchase the product at all. However, Johnston (2016) maintains that brand loyalty is as a result of customer satisfaction and that the stages of information search and alternative evaluation will be avoided or fast-tracked completely as such. It is very usual for customers to give positive or negative feedback when they are satisfied or dissatisfied about a product. Figure 2.7 below indicates the buyer decision process.

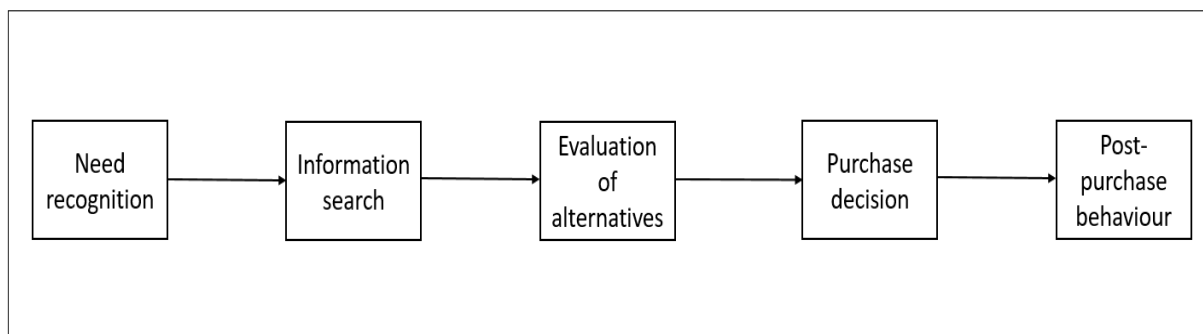


Figure 2.7: The buyer decision process (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010)

2.15 TYPES OF PLANNED BUYING BEHAVIOUR

Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (1995) state that purchases and purchase intention may be divided into buying that is fully planned, partially planned and unplanned. This model is vital as it indicates to companies the type of buying behaviour consumers have when they intend to purchase a brand. Understanding the type of behaviour allows for companies to efficiently utilise their marketing activities to effectively create brand loyalty.

2.15.1 Unplanned buying

Forbes (2014) defines unplanned buying as “being a purchase that is made without any deliberate planning before entering the store”. Moreover, Chomvilailuk and Butcher (2014) define unplanned buying as practices of shopping that leads to consumers being exposed to in-store stimuli creating new needs or serving as a reminder of forgotten needs. However, Inman, Winer and Ferraro (2009) cited by

Chomvilailuk and Butcher (2014) define it as “a situation that customers buy the product without purchasing intention before going to the store”. Assael (2004) states that consumers who do not have a relationship with a product intend to purchase the product within the store due to obtaining an inadequate incentive to pre-plan a purchase. Moreover, there are two simple explanations for unplanned buying. The first being, the time and effort needed in the search for alternatives outside of the store could be troublesome for some consumers as their buying tends to be centred on a reminder basis. Secondly, consumers may look to buy a product out of assortment or uniqueness; buying on impulse (Assael, 2004).

2.15.2 Partially planned buying

Farr and Hollis (1997) describe partially planned buying as consumers that solely choose a product category and the requirement prior to buying a brand or product ahead of entering a shop. Chi, Yeh and Yang (2009) state that consumers tend to choose beforehand the category of a product but not a particular brand or product; they wait to decide until they experience the actual shopping. For example, with regards to deodorants, the consumer decides they want to purchase a deodorant but have no clue which brand of deodorant they will purchase; they will decide what to purchase once at the store. Manikanden and Rajmohan (2014) describe partially planned buying as items in which consumers intend to purchase without making a shopping list prior to entering the store or shop. In this category, the decision on the quantity to be purchased as well as the brand to be purchased is dependent on the packaging of the product, the feeling of the consumer during the time of purchase and the price of the product. Blackwell, Miniard and Engel (2006) highlight that because the intention to purchase a product exists within consumers. If their involvement is low, consumers will instead seek to purchase a brand they are aware of and will be persuaded by the reductions in price or enticed by special displays.

2.15.3 Fully planned buying

Bucklin and Lattin (1991) cited by Forbes (2014) define fully planned buying as “one in which the consumer, before entering a store, had already decided to make a purchase”. Forbes (2014) describes fully planned buying as balanced judgements made by consumers that intend to purchase when they enter a store. Consumers tend

to create a budget, obtain information, assess the variety of product or brand choices and recognise their needs (East, 1997; Vianelli et al., 2007). Forbes (2014) maintains that a coherent decision making process leads to fully planned buying needing a longer timeframe and more information in comparison to unplanned buying. Blackwell, Miniard and Engel (2006) highlight that both the brand and the product are chosen prior to making the purchase. Meaning that the involvement by consumers is high because of the occurrence of their purchase planning which is influenced by marketing efforts and in-store factors. Fully planned buying behaviour is essential as it allows companies to focus on and improve on these marketing activities and in-store factors to create brand loyalty for customers, thus positively influencing customers' intentions to purchase their brands.

2.16 THEORIES OF BEHAVIOUR

In this section, various behavioural theories are described in relation to the subject under investigation.

2.16.1 Theory of reasoned action

The theory of reasoned action (TRA) by Fishbein and Ajzen in (1975), is one of the utmost important and prominent theories of human behaviour as it is a model for the prediction of behavioural intentions and/or behaviour. Meskaran, Ismail and Shanmugam (2013) mention that theory of reasoned action has been used to forecast an extensive variety of behaviours, it also stipulates behavioural intention is utilised by two functions being: 'attitude towards behaviour' and 'subjective norm'. Attitude refers to the performance of an individual towards their behaviour than their overall performance, subjective norms plays the role of a set of principles known as normative beliefs. Normative beliefs can be defined as something "concerned with the likelihood that important referent individuals or groups would approve or disapprove of performing the behaviour". Montano and Kasprzyk (2015) mention that studies in the past on the relationships found a moderately low similarity concerning attitudes and behaviours, other academics recommend excluding attitude as an influence fundamental to behaviour. It is highlighted that the effort put into the expansion of theory of reasoned action by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) differentiated between the attitude of an object and the attitude of behaviour with regards to that object. Moreover,

a majority of philosophers of attitude tested attitude to an object in order to forecast a behaviour; meanwhile Fishbein endorsed the attitude to behaviour as an ample forecaster of that behaviour than attitude is to an object that is aimed at the behaviour (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Montano & Kasprzyk, 2015). Figure 2.8 indicates the model of theory of reasoned action.

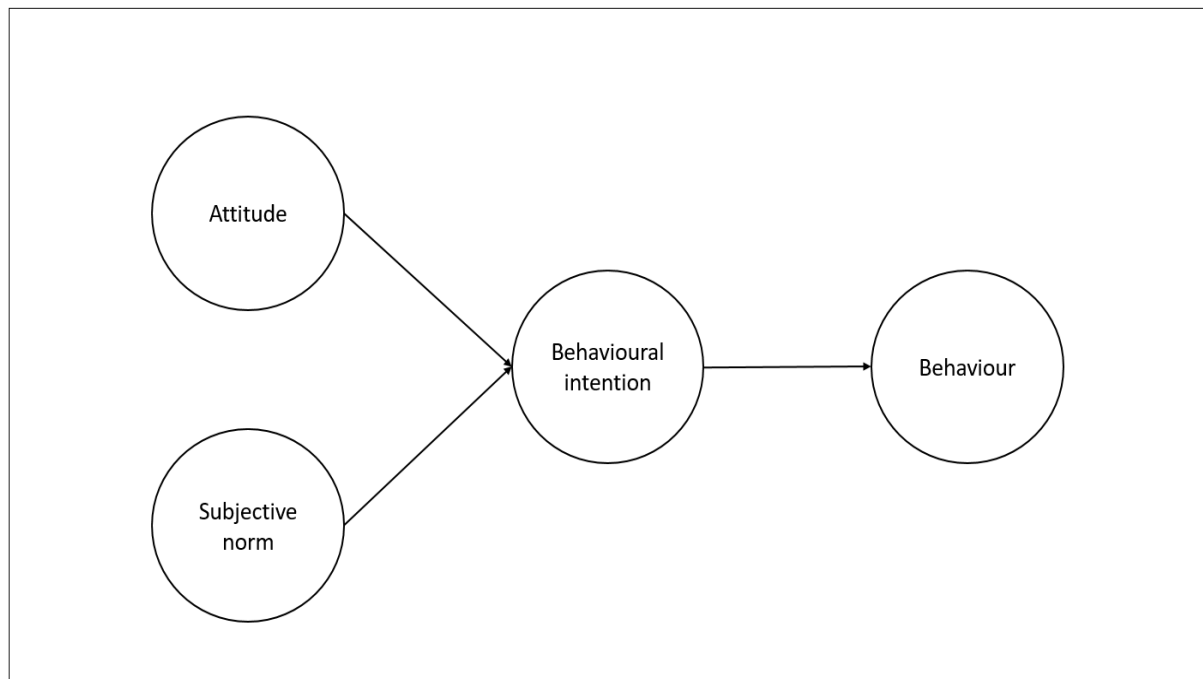


Figure 2.8: The Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein&Aizen, 1975)

2.16.2 Theory of planned behaviour

The theory of planned behaviour was developed by Ajzen (1985) encompasses the frontier circumstances of wholesome voluntary control that has been identified by the theory of reasoned action. This is achieved by containing beliefs concerning the ownership of indispensable resources and prospects in order to implement an assumed behaviour. The extra resources and prospects a person perceives to own, the superior must be their perceived behavioural control with regards to behaviour. For instance, there is likelihood to distinguish between behavioural and normative beliefs as well as handle them as autonomous elements of behaviour (Madden, Ellen & Ajzen, 1992). Meskaran, Ismail and Shanmugam (2013) mention that the theory of planned behaviour is comprehensive to the theory of reasoned action as it includes the “perceived behavioural control’. It is formulated that the perceived control in theory of planned behaviour is due to a supplementary factor of behaviour and intention;

meaning that it extends theory of reasoned action as people that do not have complete control over circumstances. Moreover, it is highlighted that theory of reasoned action has been utilised in various studies in consumer behaviour yet it fails to take into consideration external variables. Whilst, theory of planned behaviour is utilised in studies that search the beliefs and attitudes of notions that have a lack of proper understanding or are sophisticated in their conditions (Meskaran, Ismail & Shanmugam, 2013). Figure 2.9 below highlights the theory of planned behaviour.

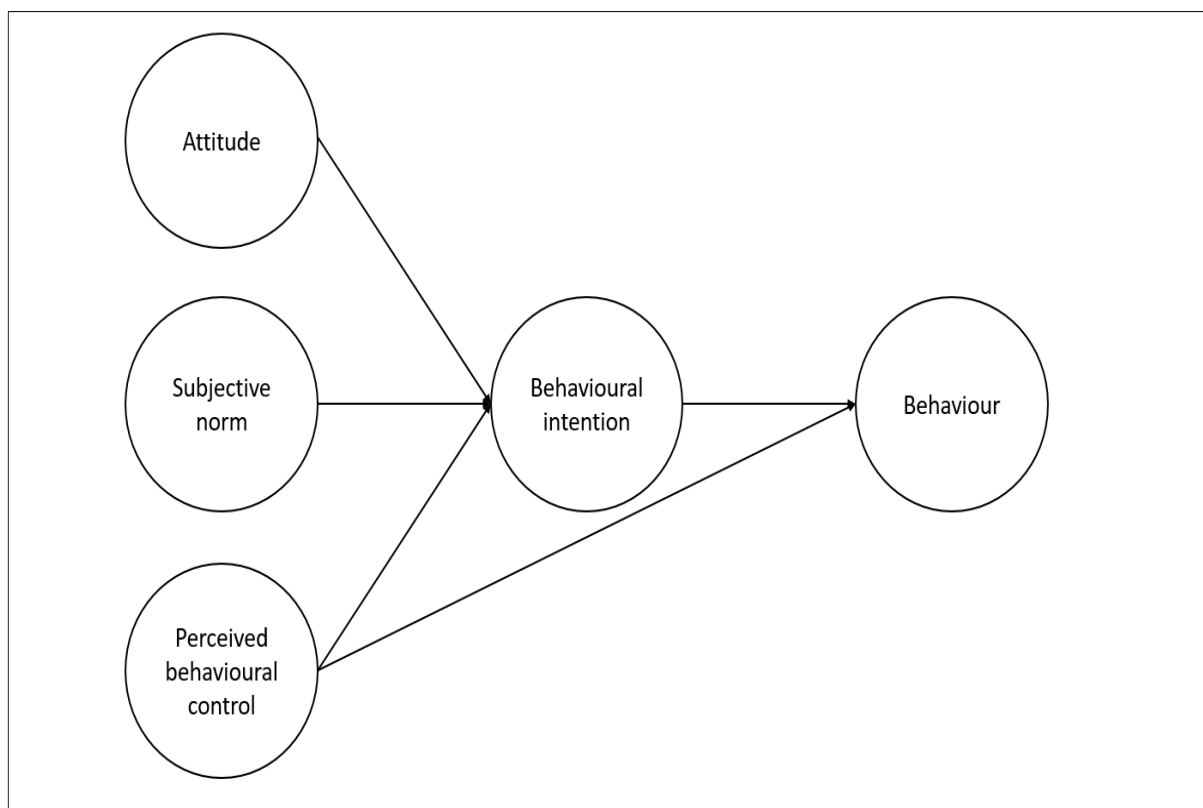


Figure 2.9: The Theory of Planned Behaviour (Aizen, 1985)

2.17 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK TO MEASURE BRAND LOYALTY

2.17.1 Customer satisfaction

Customer satisfaction might be explained as “the customer’s overall measurement of the experience of owning or consuming a product” (Du Plooy, 2012). Additionally, Mostert, Petzer and Weideman (2016) state that customer satisfaction is the level in which a customer’s appraisal of the actual performances of the product reaches their expectations which may lead to either satisfaction or displeasure. Du Plooy (2012) states that customer satisfaction to a product can be achieved when customers view

the product as having a good quality. Moolla (2010) states that customer satisfaction is recommended to be essential but is an inadequate condition for customer loyalty. Hameed (2013) states that satisfaction is an indicator of performance, while consumers who differ in their degree in perception also differ in their degree of satisfaction; which means that the satisfaction of a customer is a component that is vital. Customer satisfaction is viewed as being an indispensable component, that is, previous studies indicate that there is a direct connection between satisfaction and brand loyalty as it is significant in creating long term customer loyalty and business for the brand (Ha et al., 2011). On the other hand, Nam, Ekinici and Whyatt (2011) state that the development of brand loyalty by consumers is determined if customers' lifestyles are adjacent to the brand experience and the physical environment. The process entails ensuring that there is a positive influence towards the loyalty of a customer, which leads to the creation of brand loyalty. Furthermore, customers that have satisfaction towards a specific brand experience a high likelihood of repurchasing the brand and tend to become loyal customers displaying strong customer goodwill. Also, previous studies show that customer satisfaction positively influences customer retention, customer purchase and product usage; meaning that that the satisfaction of a customer is perceived as being an essential antecedent to the loyalty of a customer (Martínez & Rodríguez-del-Bosque, 2013).

2.17.2 Switching costs

Rhodes (2013) depicts switching costs as the costs that are incurred by a customer when they switch from a brand to another. Likewise, Aydin, Özer and Arasil (2005) refer to switching costs as the consequence price that is to be paid by a customer for leaving one supplier for another supplier. In addition, customers can shift to an inexpensive or alternative brand when their attitude towards loyalty of the brand is low and the variance in the cost may be utilised in examining the motivation in the repurchasing of a brand as well as determining if consumers have high levels of brand loyalty to a specific brand (Du Plooy, 2012). Switching costs can be divided into 3 categories: economic or financial costs, psychological costs and procedural costs; these viewed costs for being disloyal discourage customers from switching from their current brand to another. Moreover, switching costs are partially consumer specific because they do not only comprise of calculated monetary conditions but also include

psychological consequences of becoming a new customer to another company as well as the effort and time needed in purchasing a new brand (Moolla, 2010). The following costs are the categories of switching:

a) Economic or financial switching costs

Economic or financial switching costs transpire when a customer changes their brand for another brand; it may also be considered as a “sunken cost”.

b) Psychological switching costs

Psychological costs are the perceived costs that result from social connections that develop overtime and the ambiguity and risk linked with switching to an unknown brand.

c) Procedural switching costs

Procedural switching costs arise from the buyer decision-making process and the implementation of the customer’s decision; the five-stage process involves need recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives, purchase decision and post-purchase behaviour.

Academic research reveals that switching costs have positive effects on entrance barriers, prices and profits from companies as a way of attracting new customers by creating discounts and price wars (Du Plooy, 2012; Moolla, 2010).

2.17.3 Brand trust

Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001) define brand trust as “the willingness of the average consumer to rely on the ability of the brand to perform its stated function”. Trust may be defined as a confidence in certainty that customers have with regards to sellers’ delivering pledged services and a trust that the purchased brand is perceived as having influence on its integrity leading to the strength in repeat buying behaviour of customers (Sahin, Zehir & Kitapçı, 2011). Brand trust plays a major role on customers by creating connections with them that are indefinite; it is perceived that the brand is dependable and liable for the interest and wellbeing of the customer (Lee et al., 2014). However, Du Plooy (2012) explains brand trust as a customer’s inclination on the dependability towards the functional performance of the brand in performing as intended during purchase and the guarantee that a person will reveal what is not feared and what is preferred; ensuring that the weaknesses of an individual is not

suppressed. Sahin, Zehir and Kitapçı (2011) state that brand trust is made up of two dimensions. Reliability being the first dimension, it is technical or competence-based natured; it occupies the capability and readiness to maintain pledges made to customers as well as gratify their needs.

The acknowledgement of good intent towards the brand in accordance to the wellbeing and interests of customers represents the second dimension. However, Martínez and Rodríguez del Bosque (2013) state brand trust can be divided into two dimensions: competence trust and benevolence trust. Competence trust is defined as “a prerequisite for the viability of any repeated transaction”. Benevolence trust is defined as “behaviours that reflect an underlying motivation to place the consumer’s interest ahead of self-interest”. A brand known to be trust worthy is a brand that strives to constantly pledge value towards their customers by the approach of the product’s development, production, sales, services and advertisements even through dire circumstances when certain brand calamities occur (Sahin, Zehir & Kitapçı, 2011; Du Plooy, 2012). Similarly, when consumers purchase brands they trust, that purchase may be perceived as leverage towards the creditability of the brand in reinforcing repeat purchase. The higher the extent of brand trust, the higher the extent of consumer loyalty leading to a higher extent of brand loyalty (Du Plooy, 2012; Moolla, 2010).

2.17.4 Relationship proneness

Marcati, Barbaranelli and Vecchione (2007) describe relationship proneness “as a conscious tendency to engage in relationships”. On the other hand, Moolla (2010) defines relationship proneness as a sole trait of a consumer and the frequency in which a relationship with the sellers of a specific brand is formed. According to Patterson (2000) loyalty proneness indicates an individual’s propensity to maintain familiar brands or service providers. Parish and Holloway (2010) state that researchers in previous studies considered the characteristics that certain brands have in persuading consumers to develop relationships with these brands; highlighting that certain brands contain characteristics (that is, social discernibility and personification) that allow for the growth of consumer relationship proneness. However, Moolla (2010) states that relationship proneness manipulates the progression of the brand loyalty of customers.

Du Plooy (2012) indicates that relationship proneness is an element of the persona of consumers and it is explained as the intentional and consistent inclination by customers to bond with a specific product by creating a relationship with that product. Researchers have indicated that consumers who are relationship prone tend to identify with lower levels of concern and frustration in their participation of loyalty programs, effortlessly growing commercial connections, strongly and favourably responding to a retailer's interactive efforts than consumers who have a non-prone relationship (Kim, Kang & Johnson, 2012). Customers who have relationship proneness are regarded as having a high level of commitment and trust than those who do not; also, mediation in the connection of the intent of customers that is social and behavioural is known as consumer relationship proneness (Kim, Kang, & Johnson, 2012). Besides, Du Plooy (2012) explains relationship proneness as when customers constantly and intentionally associate themselves with a specific brand by having a relationship with it. Literature highlights that consumers obtain awareness in the decision making process and their decisions are not founded on the premise of convenience, ensuring that relationship prone consumers have an influence on the growth of brand loyalty (Du Plooy, 2012).

2.17.5 Involvement

Bruwer and Buller (2013) define involvement as “the perceived personal relevance of a product based on the individual consumer's needs, interests, and values”. While, the theory of involvement derived from social psychology and conclusive communication literature by clarifying attitude and attitudinal change through a social judgment involvement method (Shiue & Li, 2013). Bruwer and Buller (2013) posit that involvement has a major role in the consumer behaviour theory as it is perceived as having a large influence on the consumer decision process. In addition, the theory of involvement is a foundation for the application and treatment of involvement in marketing specifically focusing on consumer behaviour. Its contribution to consumer behaviour is via the examination of involvement in a wider setting, by comprising behavioural and attitudinal objects such as involvement in the ensuing forms: brand, advertising, product, service, task, personal, issue, and purchasing decision (Shiue & Li, 2013). Shiue and Li (2013) state that the consumer decision-making process and alteration in their purchase decisions is due to the differences in strength of

involvement. In addition, even though some consumers display various differences in strength of involvement in a variety of purchasing situations; it is shown that a significant degree to the involvement of consumer's is in effect constant to a specific brand regardless of the difference in their strengths of involvement (Chen, Chen & Huang, 2012). The link between involvement and brand loyalty is supported by a variety of researchers specifically attitudinal loyalty that was highly linked with involvement; the larger the extent of involvement, the larger the extent of brand loyalty and a large involvement also indicates a larger emotional connection to the brand (Moolla, 2010). Also, involvement can improve brand loyalty and consumers show low levels of brand loyalty when involvement is low and indicate high levels of brand loyalty when involvement is high (Du Plooy, 2012).

2.17.6 Perceived value

Perceived value can be described as the product benefits evaluated by a customer in contrast to the product price in acquiring that specific product and that research indicates that perceived value strongly adds to brand loyalty (Du Plooy, 2012). However, Zeithaml (1988) quoted by Hu, Kandampully and Juwaheer (2009) define perceived value as a "consumer's overall assessment of the utility of a product (or service) based on perceptions of what is received and what is given". Hu, Kandampully and Juwaheer (2009) state that Zeithaml (1988) disputed that certain customers perceive value as a low price whilst other customers perceive value as an equilibrium between price and quality; meaning that the elements of perceived value strength to customers may be weighed differently. Moolla (2010) divided perceived value into four components being: value that is functional and emotional, has price-worthiness and is social. The following are the components of perceived value:

a) Functional value

Efficacy is a vital element in consumer choice because efficacy is derived from product quality and performance. Also, it is the purchase decisions of customers' that have been influenced by product performance, efficiency and product value. The superior the extent of functional value, the superior the extent of brand loyalty to a brand (Du Plooy 2012; Punniyamoorthy & Raj 2007).

b) Emotional value

Is the utility obtained from affective states and feelings that is generated by the brand and the customer's sense of sentiment to a specific brand. The superior the emotional value that a customer has to a brand, the superior the extent of brand loyalty (Du Plooy, 2012; Punniyamoorthy & Raj, 2007).

c) Price-worthiness factor

Moolla (2010) defines price-worthiness as a value received from a brand due to a decrease in perceived costs. The superior the degree of price-worthiness factor, the superior the level of brand loyalty (Punniyamoorthy & Raj, 2007).

d) Social value

Social value is the value obtained from a brand's capability to improve one's own social notion (Moolla, 2010). The greater the degree of social value, the superior the level of brand loyalty (Punniyamoorthy & Raj, 2007).

2.17.7 Brand commitment

Brand commitment determines the length of the relationship that the consumer has with a particular product brand. Jang et al (2008: 61) define brand commitment as the inclination of a consumer to resist change and the desire to maintain a relationship. Guèvremont and Grohmann (2012) define brand commitment as an emotional connection that consumers have to a brand and its products. Brand commitment is when customers' take a pledge to purchase a brand and it is an indicator that is directly linked to brand loyalty and it may be described as a predecessor construct to brand loyalty behaviour (Kim, Morris & Swait, 2008). Albert and Merunka (2013) describe brand commitment as a psychological disposition that entails a consumer's positive attitude to a brand and the inclination to sustain a relationship with that brand that they deem to be of value. Commitment can be divided into two components: affective and continuance. Continuance commitment is described as "rooted in economic and psychological switching costs and scarcity of alternatives", whereas the outcome from the perception of consumers are that switching costs are high or they have no interest in competing brands (Fullerton, 2005; Albert & Merunka, 2013). Affective brand commitment is deemed as being more emotive and "its roots in identification, shared

values, attachment and trust”, meaning that consumer behaviour is inclined by this emotional and affective connection (Albert & Merunka, 2013; Fullerton, 2005). As commitment is profoundly embedded inside an individual, the attitude of a committed individual to a brand is hard to alter as they are resistant to attitudinal change and will persist on acting positively towards the brand (Raju, Unnava & Montgomery, 2009). Furthermore, commitment may possibly result in brand loyalty as this is a major focus for brand managers as it offers benefits such as positive word-of-mouth, lower marketing costs and a better resistance to the marketing activities of competitors (Albert & Merunka, 2013). Additionally, it is significant for researchers and marketers to construct and comprehend brand commitment taking into consideration its link with strong attitude and loyalty as well as the initial impact it has in building lasting relationships with customers (Guèvremont & Grohmann, 2012).

Du Plooy (2012) citing Knox and Walker (2001) and Jang et al (2008), affirms that brand commitment is essential for establishing brand loyalty. It is an essential component for sustaining consumer relationship. Good businesses would tend to retain their customers to be loyal to brands they purchase. Knox and Walker (2001) posit that consumer less committed to a brand tempts them to purchase another brand, especially one that offers a better deal, discount or is more visible. Conversely, Louis and Lombart (2010) observe that consumers who are committed to a brand will have the tendency of making short-term sacrifices to defend why they use a preferred brand longer. Brand commitment is, therefore, a form of a long-term goal for product retain companies, as it gives them a competitive edge. Amine (1998) advises that it is critical for companies to consider brand commitment in developing marketing strategies for retaining regular customers and even attracting new ones.

2.17.8 Repeat purchase

Repeat purchase is defined as the length in which a customer repurchases a particular brand over an equal amount of time and it is a source of brand loyalty accomplished through a prone behaviour of loyalty (Knox & Walker, 2001; Punniyamoorthy & Raj, 2007). Furthermore, Kuo, Hu and Yang (2013) state that repeat purchase is the extent in which customers prepared to purchase a product and it is an uncomplicated, unbiased and recognisable forecaster of future buying behaviour. Punniyamoorthy

and Raj (2007) state that there is a direct meaning in the recurring amount of purchase or consumption behaviour due to the vigour of brand loyalty; this allows customers to institute an efficient inclined reply or routine owing to the regularity of encounters. It becomes a challenge to amend this efficient inclination away from the brand because of strong manifestation by customers.

Customers who are brand loyal utilise repeat purchase as a way of diminishing risk associated with the purchase of a product (Knox & Walker, 2001). A significant purpose for the marketing strategy for a firm is to ease the development of customers' repurchasing a brand via preference (Du Plooy, 2012). Kou, Hu and Yang (2013) state that the importance of repeat purchasing to marketing is that it is more affordable for marketers to preserve their relationships with current customers than to engage in recruiting new customers. Amine (1998) states that repeat purchase decreases the amount of time it would take customers to search for products as they have a tendency to purchase a specific brand. It becomes essential to understand whether repeat purchase is caused by commitment that links to a brand or rather to decrease the search time, which would indicate low brand loyalty and a likeliness to switch brands. Repeat purchase may be divided into the following three categories: motives of cognition, motives of affection and decisions that lead to purchase; because of fewer options, lower prices and store loyalty (Amine, 1998). Jang, Olfman, Ko, Koh and Kim (2008) state that the basis of consumer loyalty is a result of customers having an elevated level of commitment towards repurchasing the brand.

2.17.9 Brand affect

Brand affect is defined as the likeliness that a brand may achieve a positive emotional reaction to a customer as a result of using the brand (Moolla, 2010). Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001) quoted by Du Plooy (2012) indicated that brand affect is "a brand's potential to elicit a positive emotional response in the average consumer as a result of its use". Matzler, Grabner-Kräuter and Bidmon (2008) state that although customers have a variety of connections with a brand, brand affect is one of the connections customers can have as it is viewed as a customer's holistic favourable or unfavourable assessment of a brand. Du Plooy (2012) also states that brand affect consists of two independent parts being: affects that are positive and affects that are negative. A

positive affect by a customer ensures a positive connection in relation to the brand and their enthusiasm to buy that brand whilst a negative affect is an affect that customers tend to avoid (Du Plooy, 2012; Moolla, 2010). Research on brand affect has indicated that it is an integral part in the recognition and recall of brands by customers as the affective personalities of people can be formed through their mental depiction than through actual descriptive features (Sung & Kim, 2010).

Sung and Kim (2010) state that the unique contribution of affective quality is the primary component to arise when individuals attempt to regain an object from their memory (e.g. name or person). Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001) quoted by Du Plooy (2012) states that companies benefit from a larger market share and may charge a premium price due to their brand having a high consumer affect leading to a larger purchase and customer attitudinal loyalty. Also, brand affect may increase the regularity of brand usage due to a high level of commitment by customers to a brand; thus making brand affect a significant element towards brand loyalty (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001; Du Plooy, 2012).

2.17.10 Brand relevance

Moolla (2010) indicates that brands need to be relevant in order to create brand loyalty for customers. Brand relevance is the extent in which a major task is undertaken by a brand in the customers' choice process for a product in a specific product category. Companies can ensure that their brands are relevant by increasing their marketing activities spend and guaranteeing that their brand messages are properly understood (Du Plooy, 2012). Brand relevance is the placement of a brand, its brand image and persona with the target markets needs and wants, satisfying a particular need for customers (Moolla & Bisschoff, 2012). Perrey, Schroeder, Backhaus and Meffert (2003) state that a brand can be perceived to be more relevant when the brand portrays a stronger role adjacent to other purchasing decision conditions for instance customer service, product quality or price. The sole solution for firms to actually obtain development is to be successful in the brand relevance contest by improving inventive product offerings and consequently ensuring the irrelevance of competitors. Offerings of a brand that are new must be established by attaching a "must have" advantage to which competitors of the brand are lacking (Aaker, 2012). Aaker (2012) describes

“must have” advantages as the distinctiveness of a product which comprises of the values of a firm, communal benefits and personality. As a result, it is essential for these offerings to be very attractive to the target market so that customers may not deliberate other offerings that lack these advantages. Offerings for this reason should be selected by customers as a result of the irrelevance of competing products not because the offerings are not preferred. Du Plooy (2012) states that customers identify brands that are attractive, noticeable and dependable consequently relevant to a particular product category. The strategy of brand relevance encompasses mutually transformed and substantiated innovation to produce new offerings to customers. To obtain brand relevance, companies need to maintain more merciless and uncertain innovations to gratify customer needs that have not been met.

2.17.11 Brand performance

Moolla (2010) describes brand performance as a customer’s evaluation of a product after usage. Chaudhuri (1999) describes brand performance as the probability that the brand will make a profit via the extent of results in the price and marketplace. Furthermore, companies can achieve a great business performance by improving their brand performance allowing them to charge a premium price and increase their market share (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001). Brand performance can be perceived as a sign that a firm has achieved its goals in a marketplace and it can be described as a measure of the success of a brand (Du Plooy, 2012). Brand performance can be manipulated by both brand loyalty and brand attitude; it can be evaluated via two methods: firstly, through purchase intentions and brand attitudes leading to related sales outcomes. Secondly, it develops from brand loyalty and brand attitudes allowing them to charge a premium price (Chaudhuri, 1999).

Mentz (2011) describes brand performance as having intrinsic product or service features and it is a connection in which the practical requirements of customers are achieved by the product or service. Keller (2003) indicates brand performance deals with features like the proficiency of the product or service in relation to the impartial valuations of quality, and the degree in sustaining the financial, visual and functional wants and needs of a customer. Cant, Strydom, Jooste and du Plessis (2007) state brand attributes are utilised in explaining the features that depict a product or service

and the benefits of a brand denote the individual value as well as the significance in which customers connect to the attributes of a product or service. Mentz (2011) mentions that powerful brands typically have performance benefits and it is excellent for brands to prevail over critical scarcities relative to connected performance dimensions. Particular performance attributes and benefits that produce practicality contrast extensively in accordance to the category of a product. The five significant attributes and benefits that are likely to motivate brand performances in various cases: Style and design; reliability, durability and serviceability; service effectiveness efficiency and empathy; primary ingredients and supplementary features; and price (Keller, 2003; Lamb et al., 2008). Keller (2003) describes the five significant attributes and benefits that influence brand performances:

- a) Style and design- Design is a practical feature in relation to the workings of a product that influence performance connections. Customers can have connections with a product that surpass its practical features to more visual aspects for instance figure, dimensions, resources and colour. Consequently, performance can rely on aesthetic features for example the appearance and feel, and possibly the scent and sounds of the product.
- b) Reliability, durability and serviceability- Reliability calculates the dependability of performance over a period of time and from transaction to transaction. Durability is the anticipated financial life expectancy of a product whilst serviceability is effortlessness in restoring a product if it is required.
- c) Service effectiveness, efficiency and empathy- Customers tend to have connections with service relative to performance. Self-efficiency is explained as the service's responsiveness and quickness. Service empathy is the degree in which providers of a service are perceived as thoughtful, trustful and keep into consideration the welfare of customers.
- d) Primary ingredients and supplementary features- Customers tend to have convictions about the extent to which the primary ingredients of the product function (low to very high) and about exceptional supplementary features that balance these primary ingredients. Certain features are significant ingredients required for the function of the product while others are supplementary features that permit tailored and more adaptable use; varying by category of product or service.

- e) Price- The brand's guidelines to pricing can generate perceptions to consumers concerning the costliness or cheapness associated with a brand, and whether it is discounted regularly or considerably.

2.17.12 Culture

Hofstede (1997) quoted by Lam (2007) defines culture as “the collective programming of the mind, which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another”. Culture is essential for international marketers as it influences marketing strategies such as distribution, pricing, communications and product development (Lam, 2007). Culture is explained as an important aspect in generating the attitudes, behaviours, values and perceptions of customer's and determines their decision making and purchasing behaviour (Du Plooy, 2012). Moolla (2010) states that culture and family play a significant role in brand loyalty of customers and their purchase behaviour and individuals who are young still make use of family brands until they are overcome by other dynamics. There are four dimensions of diversity amongst various cultures, being: individualism, avoiding uncertainty, femininity or masculinity and power distance (Lam, 2007). The extent in which people in a society are included in groups is known as individualism. An individual is not expected to switch brands when they have an advanced sense of individualism likewise an individual with an inferior sense of individualism is expected to pursue group standards and brand loyalty decided by the group (Brown, 2011). Uncertainty avoidance is the extent in which people are influenced by culture in such a way that they do not experience comfort in unsure circumstances; the large the extent in avoiding uncertainty, the large the extent in the probability towards brand loyalty. Femininity is an inclination in support of interactions and meekness whilst masculinity is an inclination in support of attainment, valour and affluence. A large extent of masculinity in an individual indicates that they are not influenced by cultural groups and make their own brand loyalty decisions; making them more brand loyal to specific brands. The degree in which people in a group allow and foresee the power in organisations and society is known as Power distance; the larger the power distance amongst people, the greater the extent of brand loyalty articulated by these people (Du Plooy, 2012).

2.18 CONCLUSION

This chapter has presented the academic literature on brand loyalty and the purchase intentions of customers and the theoretical framework established by Moolla. The Chapter begins by describing the deodorant industry in South Africa. The chapter then discusses branding topics that build up to brand loyalty such as what is a brand, the dimensions of a brand, brand equity, brand positioning and brand preference. Brand loyalty is then introduced by indicating that it has generated a lot of interest from academics and marketers leading to a better understanding of customers. Moreover, this chapter reveals the examination into the types of brand loyalty, levels of brand loyalty and the types of loyal customers. Thereafter, brand loyalty concepts and benefits are briefly explained and a synopsis of the models of brand loyalty were also discussed. Purchase intention is described by the statement that it is the best indicator of the behaviour of an individual as it is a measure of the intention to do that behaviour. The module of consumer purchase decision making is then briefly explained by investigating the five stages. The types of planned behaviour by Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (1995) is described and also the theories of behaviour are explained through the theory of action and theory of planned behaviour. The twelve influences to brand loyalty in Moolla's (2010) theoretical framework to measure brand loyalty is discussed in depth. The research methodology is described in the next chapter.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The major focus of this chapter is to discuss the methodology used in this study by expanding on an applicable data measurement and the analysis of data employed in the study. The fundamentals of research methodology are highlighted in this chapter by discussing; the research paradigms; research design; research strategy; target population; sampling strategies; research instrument; data analysis; validity and reliability of the statistical tests; limitations of the study, elimination of bias and ethical considerations. A quantitative approach will be utilised in this study in connection with the chosen research paradigm, explained in the following section. Quantitative data were collected by a questionnaire; which details brand loyalty of Gen X and Gen Y men; the influences of brand loyalty on men's deodorants; the dominant influences of brand loyalty in the men's deodorant industry; and establishes the leading brands of men's deodorants.

3.2 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY

Leedy and Ormrod (2014) states that a paradigm is "a systematic process of collecting, analysing and interpreting information – data – in order to increase our understanding of a phenomenon in which we are interested or concerned." A paradigm is also referred to as the view of researchers established on collective ideas, standards, practices and assumptions (Wahyuni, 2012). To further add, it is suggested that two main paradigms of research exist, which are: the positivist paradigm and the interpretive paradigm (Johnson & Christensen, 2010).

3.2.1 Positivist paradigm

This study utilised a research paradigm that was positivist. A positivist paradigm is scientific as it aims to gain impartial responses from research questions and it is also known as a quantitative research paradigm (Barkway 2013; Mukherji & Albon 2014). The collection of data by this research paradigm is quantifiable and measureable as the data can be statistically measured and analysed (Barkway, 2013). Mukherji and Albon (2014) mentions that the positivist paradigm is founded on the conjecture that there was previously an existence of reality and also it is a technique that is

scientifically utilised in this paradigm for quantitative research. On the other hand, Mbumbwa (2016) highlights that there is a limitation to the positivist paradigm as it supports an extrapolative potential that reduces the nature in which the obtained data is understood. Moreover, it is suggested that the positivist paradigm is comprised of five major features, which are: observing and collecting data; viewing patterns and conceptual development; hypothesis formulation to examine theory; administering an examination of the hypothesis of the study and assisting or changing the theory (Mukherji & Albon, 2014).

3.2.2 Interpretative paradigm

Interpretative paradigm is also known as a phenomenological paradigm or qualitative research paradigm. A research approach that is qualitative is one in which a researcher is permitted to interact with the objects being researched and the behaviour of humans is what concerns them in reference to the respondents' mind set (Starkey, 2017). Zikmund and Babin (2017) suggest that interpretative paradigm is a method that is theoretical to learning the experiences of people; on the basis that the assumed experiences of people are subjective and are decided by the setting in which it is discovered. In contrast, Taylor, Bogdan and DeVault (2015) state that research with a qualitative approach delivers data that is descriptive that commences from behaviour that is observed or from words that are written or verbal. Likewise, it is highlighted that qualitative data are utilised in this kind of research that is in a form of words or pictures and is not statistical (Johnson & Christensen, 2010).

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

Research design is linked with identifying and formulating a problem by providing a theoretical structure for administering research and it can be explained as a means in studying corporate difficulties (Hair, Celsi, Money, Samouel & Page, 2015). Moreover, research design is an outline in the collection, measurement and analysis of data. Three types of research designs are deliberated, being: exploratory, descriptive and explanatory/causal (Hair, Celsi, Money, Samouel & Page, 2015). A research design that was descriptive was selected to obtain the study's objectives. Mooi and Sarsredt (2011) states as the suggested name, exploratory research design focuses on exploring a specific condition or problem; specifically, in ambiguous problems.

Furthermore, exploratory research is utilised when a researcher is not knowledgeable about a condition and there is a lack of availability of information on the problem; also, it is applied in accurately formulating problems (Hair, Celsi, Money, Samouel & Page, 2015; Mooi & Sarstedt, 2011). Mooi and Sarstedt (2011) state that descriptive research comprises of attaining data that explains the characteristics of the interested subject of the research. In comparison to exploratory research, descriptive research is confirmatory; as it is the measurement of the characteristics that are indicated in the research questions which have been precisely designed and planned (Starkey, 2017). On the other hand, Hair, Celsi, Money, Samouel and Page (2015) highlight descriptive research as failing to describe the cause that results in a condition, although it is very precise. Explanatory research design (also known as causal) is described as the examination of whether one occurrence prompts another occurrence. Additionally, this research design is not regularly utilised by marketers in comparison to designs that are explanatory and descriptive. Causality is the major purpose of this design as it is a connection between one occurrence and another (Mooi & Sarstedt, 2011). A descriptive research design has been used in this study as it is essential in measuring brand loyalty of Gen X and Gen Y men specifically in the men's deodorant industry in Cape Town. A questionnaire was used for the collection of data, whereby respondents had to answer closed ended questions on brand loyalty within the men's deodorant industry in Cape Town.

3.4 RESEARCH STRATEGY

Research strategy focuses on the collection of data for a specific research and is referred to as "a general orientation to conduct research" (Bryman, 2008; Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). Various methods are available for data collection in quantitative research, being: quantitative survey, quantitative observation and experiments. This study utilised a quantitative survey approach for the collection of data. Check and Schutt (2012) explain quantitative survey as "the collection of information from a sample of individuals through their responses to questions". Furthermore, this research approach permits several methods in recruiting respondents, data collection and utilisation of different research instruments (Ponto, 2007). Mathiyazhagan and Nandan (2010) explain quantitative survey as a technique in which descriptive research is utilised in the collection of primary data on the basis

of communication that is verbal or written with a sample of individuals or targeted population that is representative. Also, a quantitative survey is described as a very essential survey tool that permit populations that are large to be evaluated with effortlessness (Jones, Baxter, & Khanduja, 2013). Quantitative survey can be self-administered either by post or electronically, or administered by the researcher of the study in person or via telephone (Jones, Baxter & Khanduja, 2013). A self-administered survey or questionnaire was administered to respondents; this questionnaire was physically handed to respondents in order to obtain a favourable response rate. Zikmund and Barbin (2010) term self-administered survey as when there is an accountability in understanding and responding to questions by the participant. Quantitative survey research is a distinctive data collection method from a large group. Its benefits are that it has a superior statistical power due to the utilization of a large population and the capability to obtain large amounts of data as well as the access to available models that are validated. Nonetheless, a quantitative survey is expensive and the validity of surveys depend on the response rates (Jones, Baxter & Khanduja, 2013). Likewise, DeFranzo (2012) states that the validity of a survey is dependent on the response from questions asked, closed ended questions can have a validity that is lower in comparison to other questions i.e. open ended questions.

3.5 TARGET POPULATION

Mentz (2011) defines the target population as a collective of people or items that relates to the study. Likewise, target population is described as an entire collection of objects or essentials that is significant to a study, this significance is as a result of owning information that the study intends to accumulate (Hair, Celsi, Money, Samouel & Page, 2015). Furthermore, sampling units are these essentials or objects that are accessible for collection throughout the sampling units. Sampling units in regards to the study's objectives are any reasonable units, businesses, households and people (Hair, Celsi, Money, Samouel & Page, 2015). The target population of this study is Gen X men between the ages of 36 to 52 and Gen Y men between the ages of 18 to 35 who use men's deodorants who are based in Cape Town. The target population included an array of demographic profiles which comprised of ethnicity, annual income, employment industry and geographic distribution; in order to gain some knowledge of the multi-cultural diversity in the men's deodorant industry in South

Africa. In order to accommodate the target population of Gen X men and Gen Y men. The following areas were targeted within Cape Town: Central Business District, Hout Bay, Rondebosch, Claremont, Mowbray, Wynberg and Observatory. City of Cape Town (2019) indicated that these areas have a large population density of men between the ages of 25 to 62; 53.9 percent were in CBD, 54.7 percent in Hout Bay, 42.9 percent in Rondebosch, 55.7 percent in Claremont, 47.6 percent in Mowbray, 55.5 percent in Wynberg and 51.4 percent in Observatory. A sample of 250 of Gen X men and Gen Y men were used in this study and an extremely positive questionnaire return rate of 98 percent (245 out of 250) was achieved, a direct approach of the distribution of questionnaires where participants completed and returned their survey ensured this high return rate. This sample was adequate in achieving a factor analysis with a ratio of 14 observations per variable as suggested by Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black (1998). When the 12 variables are multiplied by the suggested observations of 14, a sample of 168 is proposed (Du Plooy, 2012). This sample size was obtained by the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (Kaiser, 1974) of sampling adequacy indicated that the index was above 0.700. The sampling adequacy presents an index (between 0 and 1) that is a variance that is proportional amongst other variables that may be a common variance.

3.6 SAMPLING

Sampling is described as a collection of beneficial information with regards to a population; a population is an entire group with similar characteristics. Concluding on an entire population by dividing it into smaller parts or items is known as a sampling process (Lim & Ting, 2013). Moreover, it is highlighted that in actuality it is difficult for researchers to prevent an ideal measurement that does not overlap the population (Scheaffer, Mendenhall, Ott & Gerow, 2012). To further add, Bastian (2015) states that due to time and financial restrictions it becomes a challenge to reproduce a sample that reveals the real nature of the population. On the other hand, previous theoretical studies have shown that the deviation concerning the study's results and the population's actual behaviour can be reduced as long as the samples are cautiously selected. Furthermore, if the guidelines and principles concerning the precision and comprehensiveness of the population are abided by then a projected

demographic is perceived to be a dependable system (Bastian 2015; Berndt & Petzer 2011; Malhotra 2010).

3.7 SAMPLING STRATEGIES

Malhotra and Birks (2007) describes sampling techniques as providing direction to efficiently sample population elements in a study. Babbie (2008) states that there are two types of sampling strategies being: probability sampling and non-probability sampling. Likewise, Berndt and Petzer (2011) state that they are also known as non-random sampling and random sampling.

3.7.1 Probability sampling

Sekeran and Bougie (2010) define probability sampling as a measurement for the reduction of biasness in selecting samples; also probability sampling is utilised due to components of the population understanding that they are selected as respondents. It is indicated that four kinds of probability sampling exist, which are: random sampling that is systematic, simple, stratified and sampling that has a combined strategy (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012). The following are the kinds of probability sampling described by Gravetter & Forzano (2012):

- a) Simple random sampling- is when the sampling units are not dependent on one another and the same chance is given to an individual in a population to be chosen in the study.
- b) Systematic random sampling- is when individuals are all listed and are randomly picked, subsequently moving down the list and selecting each tenth name.
- c) Stratified random sampling- is the identification of individuals in sub-groups or strata; consequently, similar sized random samples are chosen from recognized sub-groups and joined to the total sample.
- d) Combined strategy sampling- transpires when the selection of respondents is due to a consolidation of two or more strategies, increasing the probability that the sample will be representative.

Starkey (2017) states that due to random sampling strategies, there is a high prospect of generating samples that are representative for a study. Although, Rubin and Babbie (2010) who disregard this sampling method by stating that its assurance of a high representation is not consistent; meaning that to various research techniques it is difficult or unsuitable. In agreement, Gravetter and Forzano (2012) mention that probability sampling is generally utilised in populations that are small or in surveys with a large scale and they are exceptionally prolonged.

3.7.2 Non-probability sampling

Adler and Clark (2014) state that non-probability sampling is a strategy in which a sample is chosen in relation to the researcher's intuition than on a sample that is randomly chosen. Moreover, the selection of the sample is a result of the elements having convenience and simply being available (Rubin & Babbie, 2010). Rubin and Babbie (2010) highlight that there are four types of non-probability sampling, which are: convenience sampling, judgmental sampling, quota sampling and snowball sampling. Adler and Clark (2014) describe the following types of non-probability sampling:

- a) Convenience sampling- is convenient to a researcher as the category of elements is easily accessible.
- b) Judgemental sampling- is when the elements selected by the researcher are based on their judgements on which elements should be utilised in the study.
- c) Quota sampling- is a matrix that explains the characteristics of the population being targeted and subsequently data were collected from these individuals that have the same characteristics in the matrix.
- d) Snowball sampling- is used when it is a challenge to recognize participants from the chosen population and it encompasses using participants to recognise other participants to partake in the study.

A two-stage non-probability purposive sampling technique was used in this study; firstly, the target population was divided into quotas according to Gen X and Gen Y consumers and secondly a convenience sample was used to collect data from respondents. Non-probability purposive sampling ensured that certain members of the

population specifically women and men younger than 18 and older than 52 were not be able to partake in the study.

3.8 RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

This study utilised a quantitative data collection approach through a survey established by Moolla (2010) that was physically dispersed to respondents. The utilised measurement instrument in the study may be seen in Appendix A. The measurement instrument sought consideration and acceptance from the UCT Commerce Ethics Committee. The acceptance letter from the UCT Commerce Ethics Committee can be seen in Appendix B.

3.8.1 Questionnaire

A cover letter was included in the questionnaire which explained the purpose of the study to the respondents and it contained two opening questions which asked respondents which generation they were categorised as being (Gen Y or Gen X) and to name the deodorant brand that they are loyal towards in order to partake in the study. The first section summaries the demographics of the participants by asking questions on their ethnicity, annual income, employment industry and geographic distribution. The second section comprised of 50 questions that were based on the adaptation of the influences of brand loyalty by Moolla (2010) but focusing in the men's deodorant industry. A 7-point Likert scale suggested by Likert (1932) was used in the questionnaire with values of 1 to 7 which represented strongly agree, agree, slightly agree, undecided, slightly disagree, disagree and strongly disagree. Willot (2019) identified benefits of Likert scales by mentioning that: it is easy to comprehend and execute; statistical analysis, recording and presentation are supported by measureable answers; participants establish that Likert answer scales are simple to use and comprehend; and Likert scales offer the ability to record diverse views.

3.9 PILOT STUDY

Maholtra (2010) states that pilot tests are usually not structured and they require samples that are smaller than the large scale tests used in the study. Additionally, Desai (2017) states that a pilot test is commenced as a provisional run in preparing for the completion of the study and its major focus is to ensure the successfulness of

the study by offering information that is insightful. Turner (2010) indicates the significance of pilot tests by stating that they support the researcher by detecting any flaws that may be in the material of the data collected; ensuring essential changes being made by researchers. Pilot tests are utilised in order to examine whether questions are comprehensible and are not prejudiced; changes can be made by the researcher to avoid this (Kvåle, 2007; Turner III, 2010). To prepare for this, a pilot test was undertaken by the researcher whereby five respondents were selected using the sampling strategy and research instrument mentioned in the previous sections. The pilot test for this study examined whether questions were clear, if the research instrument was unclear, if it was understood by respondents, if there was assurance of quality and if the information was relevant. The feedback from the pretesting indicated that the questions were clear and the grammatical construction of the research instrument was easy to relate to. Respondents did not raise any other issues or suggestions regarding the research instrument.

3.10 DATA ANALYSIS

Lim and Ting (2013) describe data analysis as an assessment and alteration information method in which its major aim is to discover essential data as a way to draw up assumptions and decision making. The data collected for this study from the selected sample was statistically analysed using IBM SPSS version 23 (IBM Corporation, 2015). The ensuing descriptive statistics were used for data interpretation: the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy; the Bartlett's test of sphericity, which measured if a variance-covariance matrix was relative to the identity matrix; measurement of the suitability of factor analysis and the Cronbach alpha coefficients assessed the reliability of the measuring instruments. As the fourth objective of the study is to assess the mean difference in the brand loyalty drivers between Gen X and Gen Y, independent-samples t-Test was conducted and the results shown. The test hypothesis is included in Chapter 4. Finally, the study findings were presented in the form of graphs/charts and tables. The tables show parameters measured and statistical values. Each set of results of the statistical analysis were discussed and conclusions drawn based on interpretation of the results.

3.10.1 Validity of research instruments

Du Plooy (2012) recommends factor analysis as it guarantees the validity of the research questionnaire and the major focus of this research was to present empirical evidence supporting the theoretical framework on brand loyalty by Moolla as a foundation in the development of the questionnaire undertaken in this study.

a) Factor analysis

In an effort to ascertain fundamental factors (variables) that describe the configuration of the relationships contained by a category of observed variables, Factor analysis is utilised. This technique is advantageous in reducing data or structure detection. The method is utilised in the identification of an insignificant amount of variables that mostly expands on the observed variances in an ample amount of visible variables. Redundant or decidedly interconnected variables are removed from the data and are replaced with a reduced amount of unconnected variables. Utilised in the detection of structure, this technique identifies fundamental or relationships that are latent among variables under study. Moolla (2010) states that factor analysis needs to be utilised to establish the interrelationships amongst the research variables. To ensure that a whole set of interdependent variables are studied, factor analysis, which is an interdependence measure, guarantees no distinction concerning independent and dependent variables. A factor loading of 0.60 is considered satisfactory.

b) Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy statistically specifies the amount of variance in your variables that can create fundamental factors. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure presents an index (between 0 and 1) that is a variance that is proportional amongst other variables that may be a common variance. Bisschoff and Kade (2010) cited by Du Plooy (2012) state that an index between 0.9 and 1.0 is 'excellent'; between 0.7 and 0.8 is 'good'; between 0.5 and 0.7 is 'average'; an index of 0.6 should exist in order for factor analysis to be contemplated and an index smaller than 0.5 is 'not suitable'.

c) Bartlett's test of sphericity

Like KMO, Bartlett's test of sphericity indicates suitability of the data for structure detection. It examines the null hypothesis in which the connected matrix has an identified matrix, which is an indication that the factor model is not appropriate for structure detection. The test highlights the connection among the relationship of variables and specifies if factor analysis is appropriate for the data (Bisschoff & Kade, 2010). In order to ensure that the variables are appropriate for factor analysis, the significance level of Bartlett test of sphericity is 0.000 (Du Plooy, 2012). In this test, the Null Hypothesis (H_0) There is no significant statistical relationship between variables measuring the drivers of brand loyalty to men's deodorant brands. The Alternate Hypothesis (H_1) There is a significant statistical relationship between variables measuring the drivers of brand loyalty to men's deodorant brands. In Bartlett's test of sphericity the null hypothesis is $\Sigma \neq \sigma^2 I_r$, where $\sigma^2 > 0$ is unspecified and I_r is an $r \times r$ identity matrix.

d) Cronbach's Alpha

Cronbach's alpha test of reliability, calculates a number of commonly used measures of scale reliability and also provides information about the relationships between individual items in the scale (Cronbach, 1951). A test of reliability based on Cronbach's alpha is necessary for the study considering that it uses factor analysis to measure the influence of each construct. The statistics is reported to be a measure of internal consistency or how the set of questions in each construct, or the latent variables representing them, are closely related (Sprinthall, 2007). A high value of the Cronbach alpha gives an indication that the item (question on loyalty influence) measure an underlying construct (or latent variable) generated by factor analysis. This study considers Field (2007) and Luo (2010)'s minimum coefficient of the Cronbach alpha set at 0.70 as an acceptable minimum coefficient of each influence construct.

e) Hypothesis test (t-Test)

The Independent-Samples t-Test procedure tests the significance of the difference between two sample means. This test is conducted to assess the mean difference in brand loyalty drivers between Gen X and Gen Y. This test was carried out based on the following hypothesis and 95 percent confidence interval:

- Null hypothesis H_0 : There is no difference between the mean scores of Generation X and those of Generation Y
- Alternative hypothesis H_1 : There is significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups of deodorant customers

3.11 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Desai (2017) indicates that validity and reliability are two features that are essential in research; these two features ensure that there is a distinction between research that is good and poor, good research allows findings to have credibility and trustworthiness through careful consideration. Field (2005) defined validity as the identified interpretations that stem from the study about the answer generated from the question or what theoretical measure is established from the measured test. Iacobucci and Churchill (2010) state it is essential for the test to have validity to ensure results are administered precisely and are well understood. Moolla (2010) states that the validation of the study's questionnaire was done by utilising a factor analysis, necessity in a scale that is reliable to confirm that the survey is a reflection of the construct being measured; explaining the use of the Cronbach alpha which has a universal acceptance in literature for this kind of analysis. Hence, the validity and reliability determined the research instrument's trustworthiness and the pilot study undertaken ensured reliability for the research instrument.

3.12 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

As the research was conducted in Cape Town, it cannot fully be generalised to the whole of South Africa. Also, due to financial and time constraints; the study could not be conducted in the whole of Cape Town but was limited to areas accessible to the researcher and were predominantly targeted but are not limited to: CBD, Hout Bay, Rondebosch, Claremont, Mowbray, Wynberg and Observatory. Moreover, due to South Africa's multicultural diversity within South Africa; it is problematic to generalise the results of Cape Town to the whole of South Africa as the influences of brand loyalty may be different in other areas in the country such as areas with a hotter climate that may have a preference for antiperspirants than deodorants. Also, the study mainly focused on brand loyalty of men's deodorants, meaning that it cannot be generalised to other products such as speciality products, shopping products and unsought

products. The results are limited to men's deodorants used by Gen X and Gen Y consumers in Cape Town and it cannot be generalised to deodorants used by women as well.

3.13 ELIMINATION OF BIAS

Marchevsky (2000) describes elimination of bias as a kind of fault that can underrate or overrate the conditional significance of the interest of the population and that the main focus of a study is to eradicate biasness. This study tried to eradicate biasness from the researcher and respondents. Respondents were not directly incentivised to partake in the study; in fact they were told after completing the questionnaire that they were opportune in winning a R250 cash prize. Respondents were given the option to participate or decline, the winner of the cash prize was randomly selected. The researcher insured that there was still anonymity i.e. personal details such as respondent's name was not required by the competition but only their electronic mail address or cell phone number (usually suggested by respondents themselves) was essential to inform the winner. After the data collection, the remaining email addresses were removed so as not comprise the anonymity of respondents and abide by ethical standards as well as eradicate any biasness.

3.14 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The basis of this study is on the onus of ensuing ethical considerations:

3.14.1 Permission to conduct study

Before the study could formally begin, an endorsement for the topic and methodology of the study was required from the higher degrees committee at UCT; the researcher had been given permission to initiate the study by utilising an approach that was quantitative. Also, before the researcher could collect data; an approach was made to the UCT research and ethics committee to give permission on the research instrument utilised in the study, the researcher was given permission to collect data via a questionnaire.

3.14.2 Informed consent

Bryman and Bell (2011) indicate that consent should be fully acquired before the commencement of the study. The researcher ensured that permission was obtained from each participant before distributing each survey.

3.14.3 Protection from physical or emotional harm

Starkey (2017) refers to physical or emotional harm as being a consequence that is not pleasant to the body or mind in accordance to their coping aptitude. Respondents were not subjected to any emotional or physical harm whilst partaking in this study.

3.14.4 Privacy of respondents

The privacy of respondents refers to the identities of every participant being protected and not revealed to any person external to the network of the researcher (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). The information that was presented to the researcher by the respondents are and will remain anonymous to the study.

3.15 CONCLUSION

The research methodology of this study is highlighted in this chapter. A positivist paradigm was utilised as it is quantifiable and measureable, and the data will be statistically measured and analysed in the next chapter which focuses on presenting the results of the study. As this study uses a quantitative research approach, a descriptive research design ensured better measurement of Gen X and Gen Y consumers in Cape Town in the men's deodorant industry. The population targeted in this study were Gen X and Gen Y men, a sample of 250 of this target population was selected for this study; a favourable response rate of 98 percent was obtained (245 out of 250). The research instrument was a questionnaire that was adapted from Moolla (2010). The measurement instrument utilised in this study was considered to be valid and reliable. The researcher tried as much as possible in minimising biasness from the study. In regards to the research methodology in this chapter, it highlighted how the study was conducted and information reflected by the researcher. The next chapter presents the results of this study.

CHAPTER FOUR: PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapter focused on the explanation of the statistical methods and analysis used in this research. The aim of this chapter is to present, interpret and discuss the results of the analysis and findings. Following immediately (Section 4.2) is the demographic profile of the participants of the research. It specifically examines the two generations (age group), race, income segment, industry of employment and geographic distribution. Section 4.3 shows results of the quantitative data that was analysed in the study. This chapter also highlights the test of the interrelationships between variables, reliability of results, importance of variables, summary of mean values, test of inter-generational mean difference and the brand loyalty framework in the men's deodorant industry.

4.2 DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS

Table 4.1, Figures 4.1 and 4.2 highlight the demographic profile of the study's respondents. Other descriptive information characterising the respondents is presented in Table 4.2, Figure 4.3 and Figure 4.4.

Table 4.1: Generation (Age group) of respondents

Age Group	Frequency	Percent
Generation X	41	16.7
Generation Y	204	83.3
Total	245	100.0

Table 4.1 indicates that 16.7 percent of the respondents were Gen X (36 to 52 years) and 83.3 percent of the respondents were Gen Y (18 to 35 years). It shows a clear imbalance of respondents in the sample in favour of Gen Y; the younger age group of respondents interviewed. This was not a deliberate selection, but incidental. It reflects the inter-generational disparity in terms of the presence of public places such as

university campuses, parks, shopping centres and other public amenities where Gen Y participants frequent more than Gen X.

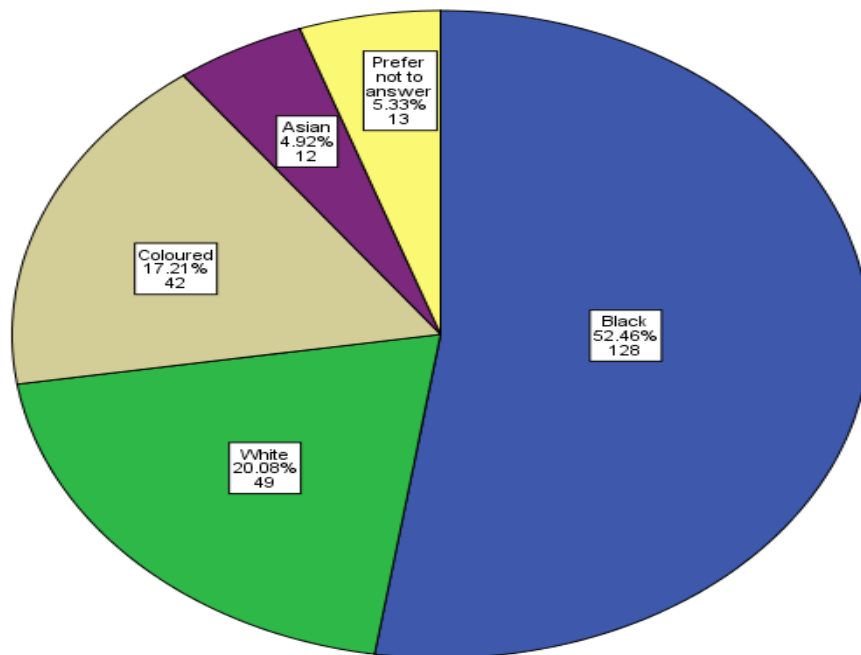


Figure 4.1: Race of respondents

Figure 4.1 illustrates the racial demographics of respondents as: black (52.46%), white (20.08%), coloured (17.21%), Asian (4.92%) and other respondents (5.33%) preferred not to indicate their race. This finding is expected. It could closely reflect the demographic composition of the Cape Town population.

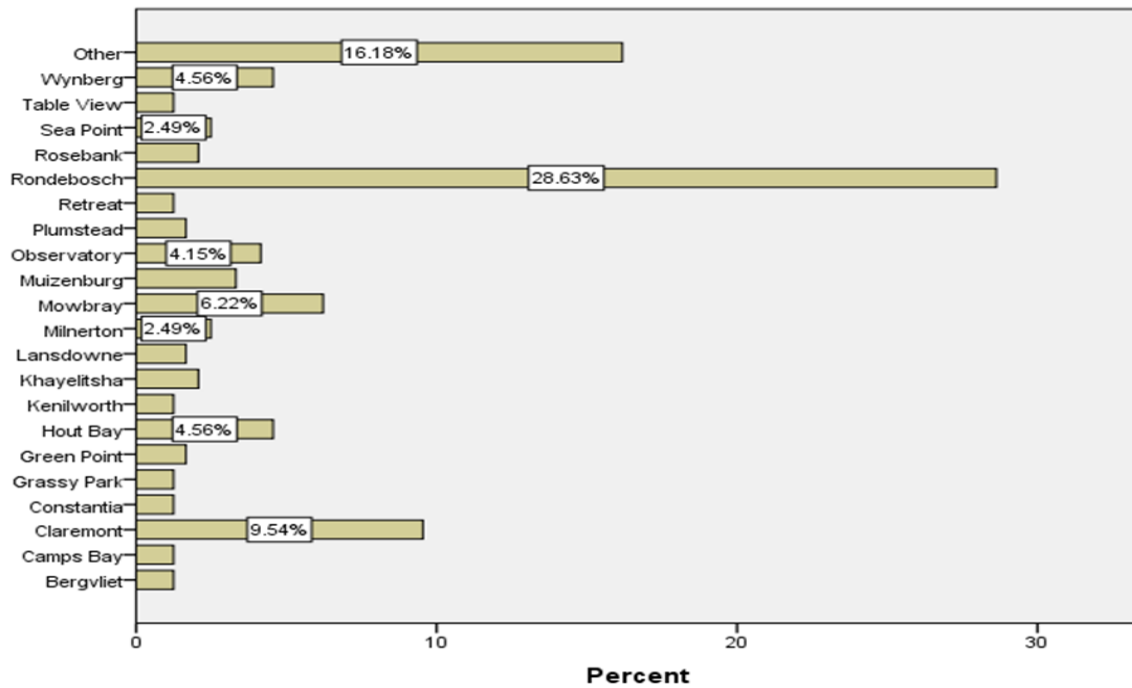


Figure 4.2: Geographic distribution of respondents

Figure 4.2 presents the geographic distribution of respondents of which 28.63 percent resided in Rondebosch, 9.54 percent in Claremont, 6.22 percent in Mowbray, 4.56 percent in Hout Bay and 16.18 percent of respondents resided in other areas within Cape Town. This is evident because most of the surveys took place within these areas as indicated in the chart.

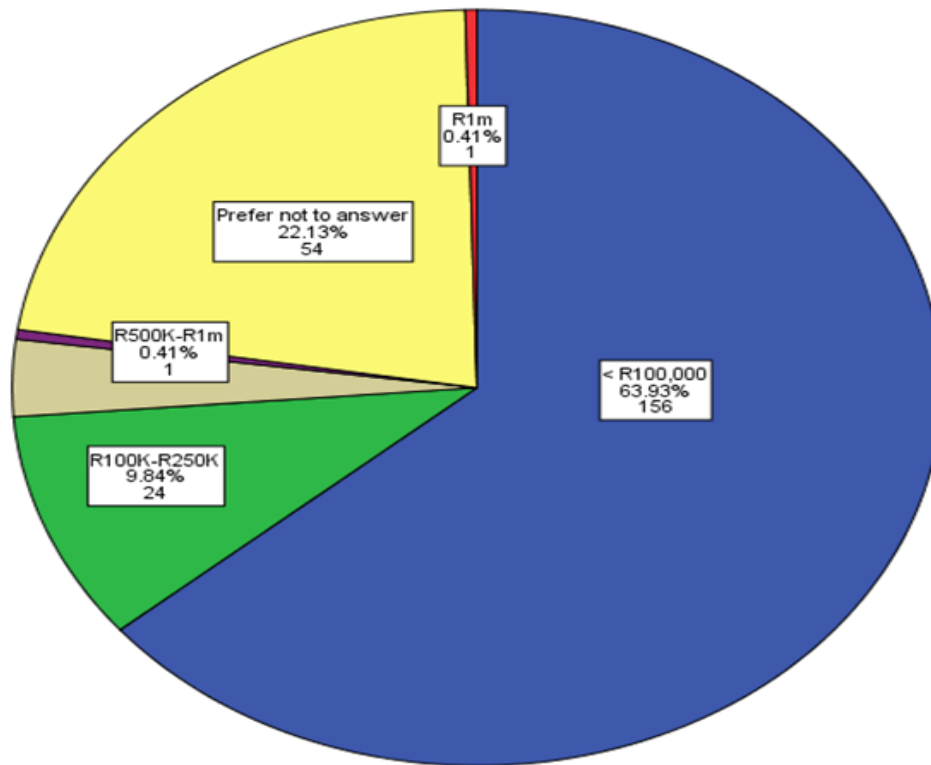


Figure 4.3: Income segment of respondents per annum

Figure 4.3 displays that 63.93 percent of the respondents of the study had an income per annum of less than R100 000. This indicates that majority of the respondents are low-income earners, which is explained by the fact that majority of the respondents (83%) are young (see Table 4.1). About 10 percent of the respondents had income per annum between R100 000 and R250 000, and 22.13 percent of respondents preferred not to answer, which could be because they were not comfortable revealing their income.

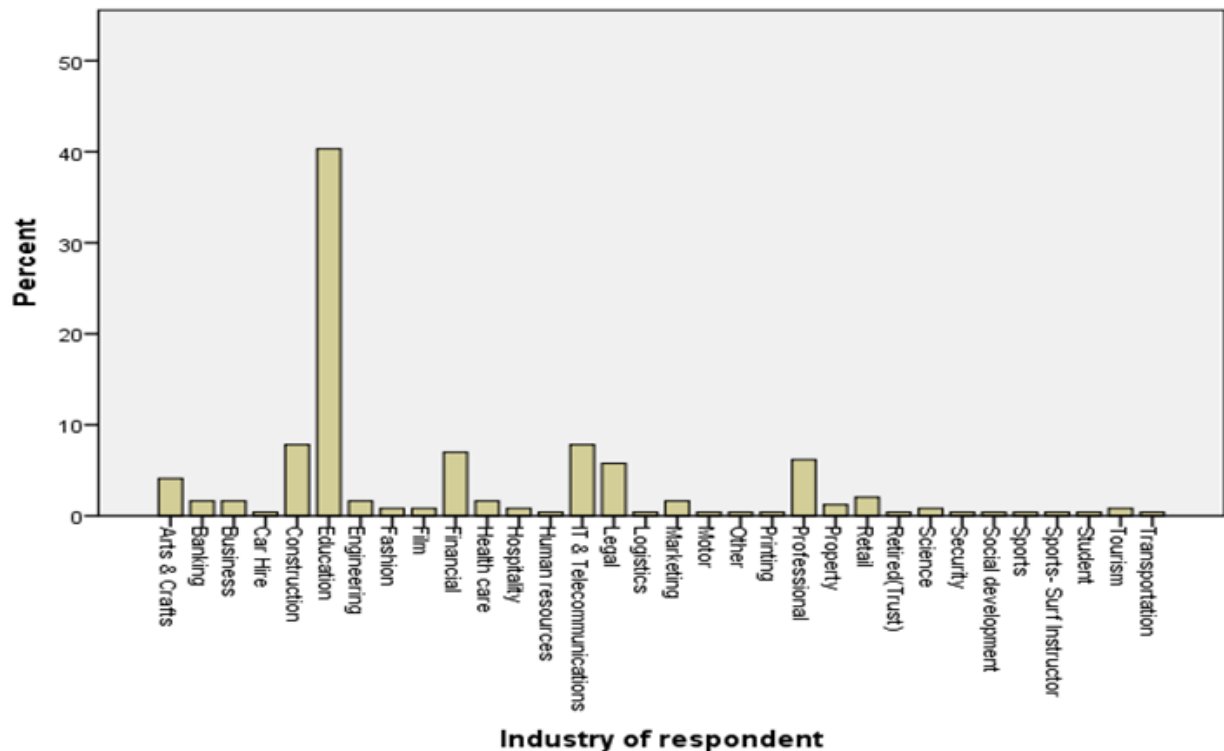


Figure 4.4: Industry employment of respondents

Figure 4.4 highlighted that the vast amount of the respondents (40%) are in the education category, which could mean mostly students and men working in the education industry, such as lecturers, took part in the study. This is followed by IT and Telecommunication (7.4%), construction (7.4%), Finance (7.0%), other professional careers (6.2%), legal (5.8%) and arts and crafts.

Table 4.2 below shows the six deodorant brands that are popular (73.2%) among the 245 participants. The most dominant of these brands are Nivea, Axe and Shield.

Table 4.2: Leading brands of men's deodorants among respondents

Deodorant Name	Frequency	Percent
Nivea	71	29.0
Axe	33	13.5
Shield	27	11.0
Old Spice	19	7.8
Brut	17	7.0
English Blazer	12	4.9
Total	179	73.2

4.3 QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS

4.3.2 Results of the analysis

4.3.2.1 Customer Satisfaction (CUS)

Table 4.3 and Table 4.4 summarises the analysis on Customer Satisfaction:

Table 4.3: The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's test of Customer Satisfaction

KMO and Bartlett's test		Generation Y	Generation X
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.754	0.607
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approximate Chi-Square	192.901	72.232
	Degrees of Freedom	10	10
	Significance	0.000	0.000

It can be clearly seen in Table 4.3 that the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin score measure of sampling adequacy value of Gen Y is 0.754, which is greater than the required value of 0.700 value. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin score is lower marginally for Gen X with 0.607 in comparison to 0.700; although, the Bartlett's score at 0.000 is suitable, suggesting the rejection of the null hypothesis that there is no significant statistical relationship between variables measuring the drivers of brand loyalty to men's deodorant brands. This indicates the data obtained for Gen X is appropriate for factor analysis.

Table 4.4: Factor analysis of Customer Satisfaction

Code	Question	Generation Y	Generation X
CUS01	I am very satisfied with the deodorant brand I purchased	0.655	0.860
CUS02	Distinctive product features in my deodorant keeps me brand loyal	0.730	0.908
CUS03	My loyalty towards a particular deodorant brand increases when I am satisfied with that brand	0.797	0.712
CUS04	I do not repeat a purchase if I am dissatisfied about a particular deodorant brand	0.396	0.137
CUS05	I get pleasure from the deodorant I am loyal towards	0.783	0.763
Cronbach Alpha		0.694	0.731
Total variance explained		47.31%	53.45%

As can be seen in Table 4.4, each and every item or variable used to measure *Customer Satisfaction* loading in the respective customer satisfaction is above 0.6 with the exception of CUS04 in both Gen X and Gen Y customers, must be excluded from

the analysis as a result of small factor loading (lower than 0.600; the smallest factor loading). CUS01, CUS02, CUS03, and CUS05 for Gen Y and Gen X sufficiently measures customer satisfaction. The total variance for Gen Y explained by one factor is 47.31 percent and 53.45 percent for Gen X. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient for Gen Y is 0.694, marginally lower than 0.700, although the reliability remains suitable. Gen X indicates acceptable reliability due to the Cronbach Alpha coefficient achieving a 0.731.

4.3.2.2 Switching Costs (SCR)

Table 4.5 and Table 4.6 presents the *Switching Costs* analysis below:

Table 4.5: The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's test of Switching Costs

KMO and Bartlett's test		Generation Y	Generation X
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.724	0.688
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approximate Chi-Square	141.926	79.345
	Degrees of Freedom	10	10
	Significance	0.000	0.000

As shown in Table 4.5 the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin score measure of sampling adequacy value of Gen Y is 0.724, which is greater than the required value of 0.700. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin score for Gen X is 0.688, which is marginally lower than the required 0.700, although, the Bartlett's score is acceptable at 0.000. The null hypothesis is rejected that there is no significant statistical relationship between variables measuring the drivers of brand loyalty to men's deodorant brands. Therefore, the data obtained for Gen X and Gen Y is sufficient for factor analysis.

Table 4.6: Factor analysis of Switching Costs

Code	Question	Generation Y	Generation X
SCR01	I do not switch deodorant brand because of the high cost implications	0.673	0.877
SCR02	I do not switch deodorant brands because of the effort required to reach a level of comfort	0.679	0.836
SCR03	I avoid switching deodorant brands due to the risks involved	0.726	0.848
SCR04	I switch deodorant brands according to the current economic conditions	0.494	0.130
SCR05	I prefer not to switch on deodorant brands as I stand to lose out on the benefits from loyalty programs	0.675	0.729
Cronbach Alpha		0.671	0.724
Total variance explained		43.87%	53.88%

Table 4.6 shows that all the questions in *Switching Costs* linked to one factor, is highlighted by the impact on switching costs by factor analysis. Nevertheless, SCR04 of Gen X and Gen Y customers is excluded from being analysed as a result of factor loading that is small (lower than 0.600, the smallest factor loading). SCR01, SCR02, SCR03, and SCR05 for Gen X and Gen Y customers, appropriately measure switching costs. The total variance for Gen Y explained by one factor is 43.87 percent and 53.88 percent for Gen X. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient for Gen Y is 0.671, marginally lower than 0.700, which is required, although the reliability remains reasonable. Gen X indicates reliability that is agreeable due to the Cronbach Alpha coefficient score of 0.724.

4.3.2.3 Brand trust (BTS)

Table 4.7 and Table 4.8 highlight the analysis on the loyalty influence *Brand Trust*.

Table 4.7: The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's test of Brand Trust

KMO and Bartlett's test		Generation Y	Generation X
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.722	0.679
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approximate Chi-Square	3263.437	40.907
	Degrees of Freedom	6	6
	Significance	0.000	0.000

It can be seen in Table 4.7 that the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin score measure of sampling adequacy value of Gen Y is 0.722, which is greater than the required value of 0.700 value. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin score is marginally lower for Gen X with 0.679; although, the Bartlett's score is sufficient at 0.000, subsequently reject the null hypothesis that there is no significant statistical relationship between variables measuring the drivers of brand loyalty to men's deodorant brands for Gen X. It indicates the obtained data as being appropriate for factor analysis.

Table 4.8: Factor analysis of Brand Trust

Code	Question	Generation Y	Generation X
BTS01	I trust the deodorant brand that I am loyal towards	0.892	0.667
BTS02	I have confidence in the deodorant brand that I am loyal toward	0.904	0.893
BTS03	The deodorant brand I purchase has consistently high quality	0.806	0.840
BTS04	The reputation of the deodorant brand is a key factor in me maintaining brand loyalty	0.600	0.605
Cronbach Alpha		0.784	0.724
Total variance explained		65.59%	57.83%

As shown in Table 4.8, both Gen Y and Gen X indicate reliability that is sufficient due to both Cronbach Alpha coefficients surpassing 0.700. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient for Gen Y is 0.784 and the Cronbach Alpha coefficients for Gen X is 0.724. The entire brand trust questions have one factor for Gen Y and Gen X highlighted by factor analysis data, the questions maintain factor loading that is greater than 0.600;

indicating brand trust as appropriately measuring the two generations. The total variance for Gen Y is 65.59 percent explained by one factor and 57.83 percent for Gen X explained by one factor.

4.3.2.4 Relationship Proneness (RPR)

Table 4.9 and Table 4.10 display the analysis on *Relationship Proneness*:

Table 4.9: The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's test of Relationship Proneness

KMO and Bartlett's test		Generation Y	Generation X
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.769	0.688
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approximate Chi-Square	233.669	118.182
	Degrees of Freedom	6	6
	Significance	0.000	0.000

Table 4.9 clearly displays that factor analysis is appropriate due to the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy value exceeding 0.700 with Gen Y having a value of 0.769. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin score is marginally lower for Gen X with 0.688. The Bartlett test of Sphericity is satisfactory for both Gen Y and Gen X with a value of 0.000; hence, reject the null hypothesis that there is no significant statistical relationship between variables measuring the drivers of brand loyalty to men's deodorant brands for Gen X.

Table 4.10: Factor analysis of Relationship Proneness

Code	Question	Generation Y	Generation X
RPR01	I prefer to maintain a long-term relationship with a deodorant brand	0.705	0.796
RPR02	I maintain a relationship with deodorant brands in keeping with my personality	0.809	0.895
RPR03	I maintain a relationship with deodorant brands that direct their communication to me personally	0.794	0.906
RPR04	I have a passionate and emotional relationship with deodorant brands that I am loyal toward	0.793	0.920
Cronbach Alpha		0.790	0.901
Total variance explained		61.47%	77.55%

Table 4.10 shows that the entire questions on relationship proneness obtain one factor for Gen Y and Gen X highlighted by factor analysis. Its factor loading is significantly greater than 0.600, indicating relationship proneness as being measured appropriately by Gen X and Gen Y through RPR01, RPR02, RPR03 and RPR04. Both Gen Y and Gen X indicate reliability that is applicable, their individual Cronbach Alpha coefficients surpass 0.700. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient for Gen Y is 0.790 and the Cronbach Alpha coefficients for Gen X is 0.901. The total variance for Gen Y is 61.47 percent explained by one factor and 77.55 percent for Gen X explained by one factor.

4.3.2.5 Involvement (INV)

A considerable amount of research on involvement with a product brand has been carried out by researchers such as Traylor (1984) and Rosenbaum-Elliot et al. (2011). Table 4.11 and Table 4.12 mentions the analysis on the loyalty influence *Involvement*:

Table 4.11: The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's test of Involvement

KMO and Bartlett's test		Generation Y	Generation X
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.683	0.721
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approximate Chi-Square	182.877	65.597
	Degrees of Freedom	6	6
	Significance	0.000	0.000

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin score is slightly lower than the required 0.700 for Gen Y with a score of 0.683; however, Bartlett's score is 0.000 which is satisfactory. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin score is marginally higher to 0.700 for Gen X with a score of 0.721 and a satisfactory score of 0.000 for the Bartlett's score, which highlights that data for Gen X is appropriate for factor analysis. In other words, the null hypothesis that there is no significant statistical relationship between variables measuring the drivers of brand loyalty to men's deodorant brands for Gen X, is rejected.

Table 4.12: Factor analysis of Involvement

Code	Question	Generation Y	Generation X
INV01	Loyalty towards deodorant brands increases the more I am involved with them	0.824	0.882
INV02	Involvement with a deodorant brand intensifies my arousal and interest towards that brand	0.850	0.914
INV03	I consider other deodorant brands when my involvement with that brand reduces	0.606	0.606
INV04	My choice of deodorant brand is influenced by the level of involvement others have with their deodorant brands	0.661	0.756
Cronbach Alpha		0.718	0.795
Total variance explained		55.13%	63.83%

Table 4.12 highlights the total variance for Gen Y is 55.13 percent explained by one factor and 63.83 percent for Gen X explained by one factor. All the questions of involvement in relation to the one factor for Gen Y and Gen X explained by factor analysis data and all have a factor loading that is greater than 0.600. This indicates that involvement is measured appropriately for both generations using INV01, INV02, INV03 and INV04. Both Gen Y and Gen X indicate reliability that is adequate, their individual Cronbach Alpha coefficients surpass 0.700. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient for Gen Y is 0.718 and the Cronbach Alpha coefficients for Gen X is 0.795.

4.3.2.6 Perceived Value (PVL)

Sanyal and Datta (2011) define perceived value as the outcome derived from evaluating product features by the consumer or the consumer's verdict about the supremacy or excellence of the product. They underline that customer satisfaction plays an important role in how customers perceive brand quality. Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Aleman (2005) observe that perceived value of a particular brand is derived from customers' belief in it, to the extent that other brands do not have the same quality as that of their choice.

Table 4.13 and Table 4.14 summarise the analysis on *Perceived Value*:

Table 4.13: The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's test of Perceived value

KMO and Bartlett's test		Generation Y	Generation X
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.549	0.707
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approximate Chi-Square	31.679	27.748
	Degrees of Freedom	6	6
	Significance	0.000	0.000

Table 4.13 indicates that the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin score is significantly lower than 0.700 for Gen Y with a score of 0.549 and marginally higher for Gen X with 0.707. Bartlett's scores for Gen Y and Gen X are satisfactory at 0.000, so subsequently, reject the null hypothesis that there is no significant statistical relationship between variables measuring the drivers of brand loyalty to men's deodorant brands for Gen Y and Gen X, thus factor analysis can be utilised.

Table 4.14: Factor analysis of Perceived Value

Code	Question	Generation Y Factor 1	Generation X Factor 1
PVL01	My deodorant brand loyalty is based on product quality and expected performance	0.509	0.786
PVL02	I have an emotional attachment with the deodorant brands which I am loyal towards	0.679	0.774
PVL03	Price worthiness is a key influencer in my loyalty towards deodorant brands	0.403	0.517
PVL04	The deodorant brands I am loyal towards enhance my ability to socialise	0.748	0.794
Cronbach Alpha		0.393	0.693
Total variance explained		36.07%	52.86%

As highlighted in Table 4.14, shows that all the questions in perceived value linked to one factor, is highlighted by the impact on perceived value by factor analysis. However, PVL01 of Gen Y and PVL03 of Gen Y and Gen X customers is excluded from being analysed as a result of factor loading that is small (lower than 0.600, the smallest factor loading). PVL02 and PVL04 for Gen Y and PVL01, PVL02 and PVL04 for Gen X customers, appropriately measure perceived value. The Cronbach Alpha

coefficient is very low for Gen Y at 0.393 than the required 0.700, although the total variance is 36.07 percent. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient for Gen X is marginally lower than 0.700 with a score of 0.693. The total variance for Gen X is 52.86 percent, which indicates unsatisfactory reliability.

4.3.2.7 Commitment (COM)

Table 4.15 and Table 4.16 show the analysis on *Commitment*.

Table 4.15: The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's test of Commitment

KMO and Bartlett's test		Generation Y	Generation X
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.751	0.852
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approximate Chi-Square	313.149	120.376
	Degrees of Freedom	10	10
	Significance	0.000	0.000

Table 4.15 highlights appropriate data for factor analysis as the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy is marginally higher than 0.700, with 0.751 for Gen Y and 0.852 for Gen X. The Bartlett's scores for Gen Y and Gen X are sufficient at 0.000, that is, reject the null hypothesis that there is no significant statistical relationship between variables measuring the drivers of brand loyalty to men's deodorant brands.

Table 4.16: Factor analysis of Commitment

Code	Question	Gen Y	Gen X
COM01	I have pledged my loyalty to this particular deodorant brand	0.827	0.903
COM02	I do not purchase/sample other deodorant brands if my deodorant brands are unavailable	0.642	0.696
COM03	I identify with the deodorant brand that I consume and feel as part of the brand community	0.824	0.870
COM04	The more I become committed to a deodorant brand, the more loyal I become	0.694	0.862
COM05	I remain committed to deodorant brands even through price increases and declining popularity	0.707	0.865
Cronbach Alpha		0.793	0.880
Total variance explained		55.15%	71.01%

It is shown in Table 4.16 that the factor analysis for the influence of commitment for questions COM01 to COM05 for both Gen Y and Gen X contain factor loadings that surpass 0.600, and thus there should not be an exclusion of any of the questions. The Cronbach Alpha coefficients for both Gen Y and Gen X highlight an adequate reliability as they surpass 0.700, with 0.793 for Gen Y and 0.880 for Gen X. The total variance for Gen Y is 55.15 percent indicated by one factor and the total variance for Gen X is 71.01 percent also indicated by one factor.

4.3.2.8 Repeat Purchase (RPS)

Maheshwari et al (2014), citing Kumar and Advani (2005), Kabiraj and Shanmugan (2011) and Iglesias et al (2011), observes that in the past the measure of brand loyalty used factors such as purchase sequences, percentage of total purchases, and purchase probability, which led to a focus on price, functionality and quality in the marketing of products and services. This is in as far as the expectation that customers would repeat purchase of products, if these factors met their criteria, is concerned. Table 4.17 and Table 4.18 is a synopsis of the analysis on repeat purchase:

Table 4.17: The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's test of Repeat Purchase

KMO and Bartlett's test		Generation Y	Generation X
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.486	0.485
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approximate Chi-Square	94.491	25.928
	Degrees of Freedom	10	10
	Significance	0.000	0.003

Table 4.17 shows that the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin score for *Repeat Purchase* is significantly lower than 0.700, with 0.486 for Gen Y and 0.485 for Gen X. This means that the question is unsuitable to conduct factor analysis. However, the score for the Bartlett's score for Gen Y is 0.000 and 0.003 for Gen X (i.e., reject H_0 and conclude H_1); it is essential to test factor analysis to show that it is unsuitable for repeat purchase for both Gen Y and Gen X.

Table 4.18: Factor analysis of Repeat Purchase

Code	Question	Gen Y		Gen X
		Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 1
RPS01	My loyalty towards deodorant brands is purely habitual	0.304	0.655	0.814
RPS02	I do not necessarily purchase the same deodorant brands all the time	0.722	-0.345	0.206
RPS03	I always sample new deodorant brands as soon as they are available	0.809	-0.234	0.665
RPS04	I establish a deodorant brand pattern and rarely move away from it	-0.002	0.764	0.598
RPS05	Loyalty programmes are the reason I repeat deodorant brand purchases	0.605	0.398	0.598
Cronbach Alpha		0.434		0.482
Total variance explained		32.66%	26.90%	33.88%

Table 4.18 shows that the Cronbach Alpha coefficients for Gen Y is 0.434 and Gen X is 0.482, much lower than the required 0.7. As stated before, the factor analysis was made to ensure that it is unsuitable for repeat purchase for both Gen Y and Gen X. The data shows unsatisfactory reliability for both Gen Y and Gen X. Questions RPS01 and RPS04 are associated with factor 2. As shown in Table 4.18 the total variance explained for Gen Y is 59.56 percent where factor 1 explains 32.66 percent and factor 2 explains 26.90 percent of the variance. The total variance explained by one factor for Gen X is 33.88 percent.

4.3.2.9 Brand Affect (BAF)

Table 4.19 and Table 4.20 highlight the analysis of *Brand Affect*.

Table 4.19: The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's test of Brand Affect

KMO and Bartlett's test		Generation Y	Generation X
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.642	0.707
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approximate Chi-Square	128.924	32.033
	Degrees of Freedom	3	3
	Significance	0.000	0.000

It is shown in Table 4.19 that the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin score for *Brand Affect* is marginally lower for Gen Y with 0.642 than the required 0.700 and slightly higher for Gen X with 0.707. The Bartlett's score indicates adequacy for Gen Y and Gen X at 0.000, that is, reject the null hypothesis that there is no significant statistical relationship between variables measuring the drivers of brand loyalty to men's deodorant brands. This suggests that factor analysis is appropriate for brand affect.

Table 4.20: Factor analysis of Brand Affect

Code	Question	Generation Y	Generation X
BAF01	I attain a positive emotional response through the usage of my brand of deodorant	0.783	0.849
BAF02	The deodorant brand that I am loyal towards makes a difference in my life	0.861	0.838
BAF03	I am unhappy when I am unable to use/purchase a particular deodorant brand	0.758	0.833
Cronbach Alpha		0.719	0.790
Total variance explained		64.31%	70.54%

Table 4.20 shows that factor analysis for the influence of brand affect for questions BAF01 to BAF03 for both Gen Y and Gen X comprise of factor loadings that surpass 0.600, thus questions must be incorporated. The Cronbach coefficients surpass 0.700 with 0.719 for Gen Y and 0.790 for Gen X. The total variance for Gen Y is 64.31 percent and Gen X is 70.54 percent explained by one factor.

4.3.2.10 Brand Relevance (BRV)

Table 4.21 and Table 4.22 presents the analysis of *Brand Relevance*:

Table 4.21: The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's test of Brand Relevance

KMO and Bartlett's test		Generation Y	Generation X
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.730	0.762
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approximate Chi-Square	241.733	49.799
	Degrees of Freedom	6	6
	Significance	0.000	0.000

As it can be seen in Table 4.21, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin score is marginally higher than 0.700 for Gen Y with 0.730 and 0.762 for Gen X, this means that factor analysis is appropriate. The Barlett's score is suitable for Gen Y and Gen X, as the significance value of 0.000 leads to rejecting the null hypothesis that there is no significant statistical relationship between variables measuring the drivers of brand loyalty to men's deodorant brands.

Table 4.22: Factor analysis of Brand Relevance

Code	Question	Generation Y	Generation X
BRV01	The deodorants that I am loyal towards stand for issues that actually matter	0.711	0.761
BRV02	The deodorant brand that I am loyal towards has freshness about them and portray positive importance	0.810	0.865
BRV03	I know that a deodorant is relevant through the brand messages communicated	0.829	0.819
BRV04	The deodorant brands I am loyal towards are constantly updating and improving so as to stay relevant	0.781	0.740
Cronbach Alpha		0.787	0.794
Total variance explained		61.45%	63.62%

As shown in Table 4.22, the factor analysis for the influence of *Brand Relevance* for questions BRV01 to BRV04 for both Gen Y and Gen X contain factor loadings above 0.600, all the questions should be included. The Cronbach coefficients surpass 0.700 with 0.787 for Gen Y and 0.794 for Gen X. The total variance for Gen Y is 61.45 percent and Gen X is 63.62 percent explained by one factor.

4.3.2.11 Brand Performance (BPF)

Table 4.23 and Table 4.24 display the analysis on *Brand Performance*:

Table 4.23: The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's test of Brand Performance

KMO and Bartlett's test		Generation Y	Generation X
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.538	0.486
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approximate Chi-Square	27.893	22.715
	Degrees of Freedom	3	3
	Significance	0.000	0.000

Table 4.23 highlights the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin score for *Brand Performance* as being significantly lower than 0.700 with 0.538 for Gen Y and 0.486 for Gen X, meaning it is unsuitable to conduct factor analysis. However, the score for the Bartlett's score is 0.000 for both Gen Y and Gen X (i.e., reject H_0 and conclude H_1); it is essential to test factor analysis to show that it is unsuitable for repeat purchase for both Gen Y and Gen X.

Table 4.24: Factor analysis of Brand Performance

Code	Question	Generation Y	Generation X
BPF01	I evaluate a deodorant brand based on perceived performance	0.756	0.916
BPF02	I will switch loyalty from my existing deodorant brand should a better performing deodorant be available	0.465	0.132
BPF03	I am only loyal toward the top deodorant brands	0.785	0.905
Cronbach Alpha		0.411	0.418
Total variance explained		46.83%	55.83%

It is shown in Table 4.24 that the Cronbach Alpha coefficients for Gen Y with 0.411 and Gen X with 0.418 are much lower than the required 0.7. Factor analysis was conducted to ensure that it is unsuitable for brand performance for both Gen Y and Gen X. The data shows unsatisfactory reliability for both Gen Y and Gen X.

4.3.1.12 Culture (CUL)

Table 4.25 and Table 4.26 indicate the analysis on *Culture*:

Table 4.25: The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's test of Culture

KMO and Bartlett's test		Generation Y	Generation X
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.731	0.633
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approximate Chi-Square	289.618	125.985
	Degrees of Freedom	6	6
	Significance	0.000	0.000

Table 4.25 highlights the appropriateness for factor analysis, as the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling is marginally higher than 0.700 with 0.731 for Gen Y and 0.633 for Gen X. The Bartlett's scores for Gen Y and Gen X are adequate at 0.000, that is, reject the null hypothesis that there is no significant statistical relationship between variables measuring the drivers of brand loyalty to men's deodorant brands.

Table 4.26: Factor analysis of Culture

Code	Question	Generation Y	Generation X
CUL01	My choice of deodorant brands is influenced by my ethnicity	0.698	0.732
CUL02	My loyalty towards deodorants is based on the choice of deodorants used by my family members	0.834	0.931
CUL03	My cultural background impacts on my choice and loyalty of deodorants	0.802	0.893
CUL04	Deodorant brands utilized by family members influence my level of trust in the brand	0.851	0.870
Cronbach Alpha		0.809	0.880
Total variance explained		63.79%	73.79%

Table 4.26 highlights factor analysis for the influence of *Culture* for questions CUL01 to CUL04 for both Gen Y and Gen X. It shows factor loadings that significantly surpass 0.600, implying that all the questions must be incorporated. The Cronbach coefficients surpass 0.700 with 0.809 for Gen Y and 0.880 for Gen X. The total variance for Gen Y is 63.79 percent and Gen X is 73.95 percent, as explained by one factor.

4.4 TEST OF INTERRELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE FACTORS

In order to test the correlations between the twelve influences of deodorant brand loyalty, the factor analysis procedure was employed to reduce the multiple dimensions of each influence into one scale latent variable. A bivariate correlation analysis was conducted based on Pearson Correlation measure, which yielded results shown in Tables 4.27 and 4.28. For Generation Y, all correlations were significant except seven cases, which were non-significant at $\alpha=0.05$. These are: *Customer Satisfaction* and *Relationship Proneness* with $P\text{-value} = 0.202$; *Customer Satisfaction* x *Culture* with $P\text{-value} = 0.085$; *Perceived Value* x *Relationship Proneness* ($P\text{-value} = 0.841$); *Commitment* x *Relationship Proneness* ($P\text{-value} = 0.643$); *Relationship Proneness* x *Brand Affect* ($P\text{-value} = 0.137$); *Relationship Proneness* x *Brand Performance* ($P\text{-value} = 0.336$); *Customer Satisfaction* x *Culture* ($P\text{-value} = 0.805$); and *Relationship Proneness* x *Culture* ($P\text{-value} = 0.319$).

Table 4.27: Test of interrelationships between Gen Y latent factors

		CUS	SCR	BTS	RPR	INV	PVL	COM	RPS	BAF	BRV	BPF	CUL
CUS	Pearson Correlation	1	0.192**	0.512**	0.354**	0.211**	0.299**	0.376**	-0.085	0.268**	0.312**	0.320**	0.016
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.003	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.000	.202	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.805
	N	240	235	233	239	235	236	237	229	238	236	237	237
SCR	Pearson Correlation	0.192**	1	0.238**	0.562**	0.440**	0.400**	0.489**	.174**	0.322**	0.324**	0.203**	0.224**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.003		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	.009	0.000	0.000	0.002	0.001
	N	235	239	235	238	235	235	236	227	237	234	236	236
BTS	Pearson Correlation	0.512**	0.238**	1	0.470**	0.243**	0.340**	0.489**	-0.143*	0.326**	.411**	0.218**	0.180**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.032	0.000	.000	0.001	0.006
	N	233	235	237	236	233	233	234	225	236	232	234	234
RPR	Pearson Correlation	0.354**	0.562**	0.470**	1	0.641**	0.629**	0.715**	0.146*	.578**	.560**	0.305**	0.301**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.026	.000	.000	0.000	0.000
	N	239	238	236	244	240	241	242	232	242	238	241	241
INV	Pearson Correlation	.0211**	0.440**	0.243**	0.641**	1	0.540**	0.569**	0.228**	0.523**	0.536**	0.298**	0.349**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	N	235	235	233	240	240	237	238	229	238	234	237	237
PVL	Pearson Correlation	0.299**	0.400**	0.340**	0.629**	0.540**	1	0.696**	0.013	0.638**	0.525**	0.318**	0.361**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.841	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	N	236	235	233	241	237	241	239	230	239	235	238	238
COM	Pearson Correlation	0.376**	0.489**	0.489**	0.715**	0.569**	0.696**	1	-0.031	0.642**	0.568**	0.293**	0.297**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000		0.643	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	N	237	236	234	242	238	239	242	231	240	237	239	239

		CUS	SCR	BTS	RPR	INV	PVL	COM	RPS	BAF	BRV	BPF	CUL
RPS	Pearson Correlation	-0.085	0.174**	-0.143*	0.146*	.228**	.013	-0.031	1	0.098	0.197**	0.064	0.066
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.202	0.009	0.032	0.026	0.001	0.841	0.643		0.137	0.003	0.336	0.319
	N	229	227	225	232	229	230	231	232	230	229	231	230
BAF	Pearson Correlation	0.268**	0.322**	0.326**	0.578**	0.523**	0.638**	0.642**	0.098	1	0.619**	0.341**	0.456**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.137		0.000	.000	0.000
	N	238	237	236	242	238	239	240	230	243	237	239	240
BRV	Pearson Correlation	0.312**	0.324**	0.411**	0.560**	0.536**	0.525**	0.568**	0.197**	0.619**	1	0.462**	0.422**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.003	0.000		0.000	0.000
	N	236	234	232	238	234	235	237	229	237	239	236	236
BPF	Pearson Correlation	0.320**	0.203**	0.218**	0.305**	0.298**	0.318**	0.293**	0.064	0.341**	0.462**	1	0.251**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.002	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.336	0.000	0.000		0.000
	N	237	236	234	241	237	238	239	231	239	236	241	240
CUL	Pearson Correlation	0.016	0.224**	0.180**	0.301**	0.349**	0.361**	0.297**	0.066	0.456**	0.422**	0.251**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.805	0.001	0.006	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.319	0.000	0.000	0.000	
	N	237	236	234	241	237	238	239	230	240	236	240	242

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.28: Test of interrelationships between Gen X latent factors

		CUS	SCR	BTS	RPR	INV	PVL	COM	RPS	BAF	BRV	BPF	CUL
CUS	Pearson Correlation	1	0.227**	0.540**	0.405**	0.247**	0.407**	0.442**	0.221**	0.310**	0.353**	0.349**	0.054
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.412
	N	240	235	233	239	235	236	237	229	238	236	237	237
SCR	Pearson Correlation	0.227**	1	0.248**	0.530**	0.353**	0.353**	0.450**	0.220**	0.284**	0.258**	0.285**	0.166*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.011
	N	235	239	235	238	235	235	236	227	237	234	236	236
BTS	Pearson Correlation	0.540**	0.248**	1	0.486**	0.248**	0.390**	0.503**	0.363**	0.328**	0.425**	0.312**	0.181**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.006
	N	233	235	237	236	233	233	234	225	236	232	234	234
RPR	Pearson Correlation	0.405**	0.530**	0.486**	1	0.648**	0.625**	0.716**	0.403**	0.576**	0.558**	0.395**	0.295**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	N	239	238	236	244	240	241	242	232	242	238	241	241
INV	Pearson Correlation	0.247**	0.353**	0.248**	0.648**	1	0.617**	0.600**	0.354**	0.528**	0.530**	0.346**	0.353**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	N	235	235	233	240	240	237	238	229	238	234	237	237
PVL	Pearson Correlation	0.407**	0.353**	0.390**	0.625**	0.617**	1	0.690**	0.398**	0.616**	0.537**	0.493**	0.394**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	N	236	235	233	241	237	241	239	230	239	235	238	238
COM	Pearson Correlation	0.442**	0.450**	0.503**	0.716**	0.600**	0.690**	1	0.484**	0.644**	0.580**	0.418**	0.294**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	N	237	236	234	242	238	239	242	231	240	237	239	239
RPS	Pearson Correlation	0.221**	.220**	0.363**	0.403**	.354**	.398**	0.484**	1	.471**	0.444**	.353**	0.400**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000		0.000	.000	0.000	0.000

N		229	227	225	232	229	230	231	232	230	229	231	230
BAF	Pearson Correlation	0.310**	0.284**	0.328**	0.576**	.528**	0.616**	0.644**	0.471**	1	0.609**	0.397**	0.453**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.000	0.000
N		238	237	236	242	238	239	240	230	243	237	239	240
BRV	Pearson Correlation	0.353**	0.258**	0.425**	0.558**	.530**	0.537**	0.580**	0.444**	0.609**	1	.507**	0.410**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.000
N		236	234	232	238	234	235	237	229	237	239	236	236
BPF	Pearson Correlation	0.349**	0.285**	0.312**	0.395**	0.346**	0.493**	0.418**	0.353**	0.397**	0.507**	1	0.281**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000		0.000
N		237	236	234	241	237	238	239	231	239	236	241	240
CUL	Pearson Correlation	0.054	0.166*	0.181**	0.295**	0.353**	0.394**	0.294**	0.400**	0.453**	0.410**	0.281**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.412	0.011	0.006	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	
N		237	236	234	241	237	238	239	230	240	236	240	242

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

For Generation X, Pearson's test generated significant correlation coefficients in all but only one case, that is, *Customer Satisfaction* and *Culture* ($\alpha=0.412$), which is not significant.

The implication from these results could be that the factors of deodorant brand loyalty for male Cape Town customers shown above could be important and thus could be developed further. Meanwhile, the rest of the factors in the study (that is, Switching Costs; Brand Trust, Repeat Purchase, Involvement, and Brand Relevance) might not be important influences of brand loyalty.

4.5 RELIABILITY OF RESULTS

Bisschoff and Kade (2010) cited by Du Plooy (2012) denote reliability as the value of the instrument and define it as the regularity of a collection of measuring instruments. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient (α) is one of the reliability statistical measures explored in this study. Reliability and internal consistency of data were measured by the Cronbach Alpha coefficient (Bisschoff & Kade, 2010; Du Plooy, 2012). George and Mallery (2003) in Du Plooy (2012), Cronbach Alpha coefficients are utilised and interpreted through the following guiding principles:

Table 4.29: Cronbach alpha coefficient classification (George & Mallery, 2003)

Cronbach Alpha Coefficient	Classification
$\alpha > 0.9$	Excellent
$\alpha > 0.8$	Good
$\alpha > 0.7$	Acceptable
$\alpha > 0.6$	Questionable
$\alpha > 0.5$	Poor
$\alpha < 0.5$	Unacceptable

A summary of the reliability of the influences of brand loyalty is highlighted in Table 4.30. Comprised in the table is the code of the item, the influence described, Cronbach Alpha coefficients and number of items per influence.

Table 4.30: Reliability of the influences and their factors

Code	Loyalty Influence	Customer Generation	Questions	Cronbach Alpha	Number of Items
CUS	Customer satisfaction	Generation Y	All	0.694	5
		Generation X		0.731	5
SCR	Switching costs	Generation Y	All	0.671	5
		Generation X		0.724	5
BTS	Brand trust	Generation Y	All	0.784	4
		Generation X		0.724	4
RPR	Relationship proneness	Generation Y	All	0.790	4
		Generation X		0.901	4
INV	Involvement	Generation Y	All	0.718	4
		Generation X		0.795	4
PVL	Perceived value	Generation Y	All	0.393	4
		Generation X	All	0.693	4
COM	Commitment	Generation Y	All	0.793	5
		Generation X	All	0.880	5
RPS	Repeat purchase	Generation Y	All	0.434	5
		Generation X	All	0.482	5
BAF	Brand affect	Generation Y	All	0.719	3
		Generation X	All	0.790	3
BRV	Brand relevance	Generation Y	All	0.787	4
		Generation X	All	0.794	4
BPF	Brand performance	Generation Y	All	0.411	3
		Generation X	All	0.418	3
CUL	Culture	Generation Y	All	0.809	4
		Generation X	All	0.880	4

As highlighted in Table 4.30, it is visible that most of the factors had satisfactory reliability coefficients that surpassed the 0.700 required level of reliability. In contrast, as shown in Table 4.27, other influences are questionable, as they had coefficients that surpassed 0.600, but lower than the required 0.700. A few influences are deemed unacceptable, as they fall much lower than 0.700, with reliability coefficients lower than 0.500. Field (2005), in Du Plooy (2012) states that a coefficient of 0.600 can be

deemed as satisfactory, which means that majority of the influences are reliable to measure with reliability coefficients that surpass 0.700 and are significant if they surpass 0.600.

The following Cronbach Alpha coefficients are shown for Generation Y:

- a) Culture had a Cronbach Alpha score that surpassed 0.8 ($\alpha > 0.8$), it is deemed “Good” in regards to reliability.
- b) Brand trust, relationship proneness, involvement, commitment, brand affect and brand relevance had a Cronbach Alpha score that surpassed 0.7 ($\alpha > 0.7$), it is perceived to be “Acceptable” in regards to reliability.
- c) Customer satisfaction and switching costs had a Cronbach Alpha score that surpassed 0.6 ($\alpha > 0.6$) but was lower than the required 0.7, thus it is viewed as being “Questionable” in regards to reliability, although it is suitable.
- d) Perceived value, repeat purchase and brand performance had Cronbach Alpha scores that were lower than 0.5 ($\alpha < 0.5$) and can be considered “Unacceptable” with regard to reliability; thus they cannot be accepted.

The following Cronbach Alpha coefficients are shown for Generation X:

- a) Relationship proneness had a Cronbach Alpha score that surpassed 0.9 ($\alpha > 0.9$) and can be considered “Excellent” with regard to reliability.
- b) Commitment and culture had Cronbach Alpha scores that surpassed 0.8 ($\alpha > 0.8$) and they are deemed “Good” with regard to reliability.
- c) Customer satisfaction, switching costs, brand trust, involvement, brand affect and brand relevance had Cronbach Alpha scores that surpassed 0.7 ($\alpha > 0.7$), and thus they are taken as “Acceptable” with regard to reliability.
- d) Perceived value had a Cronbach Alpha score that surpassed 0.6 ($\alpha > 0.6$) but was lower than the required 0.7, thus deemed “Questionable” with regard to reliability although it is sufficient.
- e) Repeat purchase and brand performance had a Cronbach Alpha score that was lower than 0.5 ($\alpha < 0.5$) and can be concluded to be “Unacceptable” in regards to reliability; thus cannot be accepted.

4.6 IMPORTANCE OF VARIABLES (LOYALTY CONSTRUCTS)

As highlighted in Section 3.8, a questionnaire used in collecting data for the study adopted Moolla's (2010) 7-point Likert scale for measuring the twelve influences. Values were entered as 1 (strongly agree) to 7 (strongly disagree). The Likert scale mean values are displayed in Table 4.31 through Table 4.43. This implies that a mean score above 3.5 (50%) shows indications of loyalty and 5.25 score can be interpreted as high loyalty to the brand. A value lower than 50 percent implies dissatisfaction and immediate action is required. Table 4.31 below is an adaptation of a framework by Bisschoff & Lotriet (2009: 270) , in which the mean scores are transformed into percentage values.

Table 4.31: A 3-scale framework for interpreting mean percentage values

Percent Mean Value	Interpretation	Action Required
Below 50%	Lower importance or dissatisfactory	Immediate
Above 50%	Important or satisfactory	Develop or promote to become excellent
Above 75%	Very important or highly satisfactory	excellent to maintain on top

4.6.1 Customer Satisfaction (CUS)

Table 4.32 displays mean score percentages relative to the total value per each question probing the influence of *Customer Satisfaction* for Gen Y and Gen X. Each score represents the importance of influences related to either category of consumers in Cape Town.

Table 4.32 Mean scores of Customer Satisfaction

Code	Question	Generation Y Mean %	Generation X Mean %
CUS01	I am very satisfied with the deodorant brand I purchased	27.51%	27.47%
CUS02	Distinctive features in my deodorant keeps me brand loyal	39.16%	31.50%
CUS03	My loyalty towards a particular deodorant brand increases when I am satisfied with that brand	27.43%	25.27%
CUS04	I do not repeat a purchase if I am dissatisfied about a particular deodorant brand	28.43%	25.64%
CUS05	I get pleasure from the deodorant I am loyal towards	37.31%	29.67%
Mean average for Customer Satisfaction		31.97%	27.91%

As shown in Table 4.32, none of the influences (both Gen X and Gen Y) is 50 percent or above, suggesting that the *Customer Satisfaction* is immaterial in the analysis or has no bearing to customer loyalty in the deodorants they purchased. Obviously, mean customer satisfaction values for both Generation X and Generation Y also fall below the satisfaction level.

4.6.2 Switching Costs (SCR)

Table 4.33 summarises the mean score percentages per question of the influence *Switching Costs*. It represents the importance of each question as a determinant of whether deodorant customers in either age category of respondents are brand loyal towards or a likely to switch to other brands due to different conditions.

Table 4.33 Mean scores of Switching Costs

Code	Question	Generation Y Mean %	Generation X Mean %
SCR01	I do not switch deodorant brands because of the high cost implications	60.23%	42.14%
SCR02	I do not switch deodorant brands because of the efforts required to reach a level of comfort	52.05%	40.71%
SCR03	I avoid switching deodorant brands due to the risks involved	58.94%	42.50%
SCR04	I switch deodorant brands according to the current economic conditions	68.49%	53.21%
SCR05	I prefer not to switch deodorant brands as I stand to lose out on the benefits from loyalty programmes	75.16%	58.21%
Mean average for Switching Costs		62.97%	47.36%

It emerges from the analysis in Table 4.33 that all the five influences of the loyalty construct “Switching costs” in Gen Y customers are above 50 percent. Question SCR (preference not to switch deodorant brands) is very important as an influence to deodorant brand loyalty. In fact, the question SCR05 is above 75 percent. Brand customers prefer not to switch to other brands because they want to be in the loyalty programmes. Meanwhile, for Gen X customers, question SCR04 and SCR05 are above 50 percent, meaning that switching brands would only occur when deodorant customers are faced with worsening economic conditions and that they remained contented with their current preferred brands.

4.6.3 Brand Trust (BTS)

The percentage of mean scores to determine the importance of each question as a measure of brand loyalty in either Gen Y or Gen Y customers are summarised in Table 4.34 per question of the influence *Brand Trust*.

Table 4.34 Mean scores of Brand Trust

Code	Question	Generation Y Mean	Generation X Mean
BTS01	I trust the deodorant brand that I am loyal towards	32.88%	33.08%
BTS02	I have confidence in the deodorant brand I am loyal towards	33.02%	30.45%
BTS03	The deodorant brand I purchase has consistently high quality	32.59%	29.70%
BTS04	The reputation of the deodorant brand is a key factor in me maintaining brand loyalty	42.71%	31.95%
Mean average for Brand Trust		35.30%	31.30%

It is clear from the analysis that none of the questions related to *Brand Trust* is important. In fact, neither category of customers (Gen X or Gen Y) has met the condition of satisfactory influence to the brand loyalty “brand trust”. As this is an important factor of loyalty influence, there is reason to develop a robust strategy to improve customer’s trust, confidence and believe in the quality, reliability and reputation of their brand of preference.

4.6.4 Relationship Proneness (RPR)

Table 4.35 below shows the mean scores per question of the influence *Relationship Proneness*. These mean scores represent the importance of each question in determining loyalty of male deodorant customers in Gen X and Gen Y.

Table 4.35 Mean scores of Relationship Proneness

Code	Question	Generation Y Mean	Generation X Mean
RPR01	I prefer to maintain a long term relationship with a deodorant brand	42.58%	33.80%
RPR02	I maintain relationships with a deodorant brand in keeping with my personality	48.56%	36.24%
RPR03	I maintain a relationship with deodorant brands that direct their communication to me personally	60.38%	43.90%
RPR04	I have a passionate and emotional relationship with deodorant brands that I am loyal towards	65.66%	48.43%
Mean average for Relationship Proneness		54.29%	40.59%

It is clear that for Gen Y customers two questions, RPR03 and RPR04 are above 50 percent (important), suggesting that loyalty programmes influenced maintaining relationship with deodorant brands that direct communication individual customers and having passionate and emotional relationship with deodorant brands influence loyalty to preferred products. There is need to develop these questions further to become excellent. Meanwhile, questions RPR01 and RPR02 are below 50 percent (dissatisfactory) and thus are of lower importance. Immediate action is required to improve loyalty for these questions.

Meanwhile for Gen X, none of the questions of influence is above the 50 percent level of satisfaction. This means that a special managerial effort is needed to keep Gen X customers loyal to their brands of choice. The mean averages for *Relationship Proneness* are 54.29 percent and 40.59 percent for Gen Y and Gen X, respectively, which indicates that *Relationship Proneness* is an important factor influencing loyalty to deodorant brands among Gen Y customers.

4.6.5 Involvement (INV)

Table 4.36 displays the mean scores per question of the influence *Involvement*. Each of the scores represents the importance of each question to determine brand loyalty in the deodorant industry to establish whether male customers in Gen X and Gen Y.

Table 4.36 Mean scores of Involvement

Code	Question	Generation Y Mean	Generation X Mean
INV01	Loyalty towards deodorant increases the more I am involved with them	46.73%	38.33%
INV02	Involvement with a deodorant brand intensifies my arousal and interest towards that brand	51.54%	44.95%
INV03	I consider other deodorant brands when my involvement with that brand reduces	49.46%	50.52%
INV04	My choice of deodorant brand is influenced by the level of involvement others have with their deodorant brands	59.44%	53.31%
Mean average for Involvement		51.80%	46.78%

With regard to *Involvement* of deodorant customers with their brands, there are indications of loyalty in both customer categories. For Generation Y, questions INV02 and INV04 give indications of loyalty to the deodorant brands under study. Question INV03 is borderline satisfactory, if rounded up. These questions associate significantly with brand loyalty and are thus important as far as male involvement with them is concerned. The mean average for *Involvement* is 51.80 percent and 46.78 percent for Gen Y and Gen X, respectively. This means that there is need to strategize so that more customers, especially for Gen X, get attracted to become involved with their preferred brands.

4.6.6 Perceived Value (PVL)

The mean scores per question of the influence perceived value are summarised below in Table 4.37 and represent the importance of each question with respect to Gen X and Gen Y male customers of a range of deodorant brands in Cape Town.

Table 4.37 Mean scores of Perceived Value

Code	Question	Generation Y Mean	Generation X Mean
PVL01	My deodorant brand loyalty is based on product quality and expected performance	29.07%	29.29%
PVL02	I have an emotional attachment with the deodorant brands which I am loyal towards	61.48%	44.64%
PVL03	Price worthiness is a key influencer in my loyalty towards deodorant brands	41.01%	33.93%
PVL04	The deodorant brands I am loyal towards enhance my ability to socialise	53.16%	42.50%
Mean average for Perceived Value		46.19%	37.59%

Table 4.37 shows questions PVL02 and PVL04 are above the satisfactory level of 50 percent in the Gen Y category of deodorant consumers concerning customer's perceptions of value of their used brand. Meanwhile, PVL01 and PVL03 are below the satisfactory level, indicating that something needs to be done to improve deodorant customers' loyalty coming by way of improving price worthiness of the product. Meanwhile for Gen X, all questions show unsatisfactory influence, and thus immediate managerial attention is required to keep or increase the Gen X customer base. The mean average scores for both Gen Y and Gen X are accordingly far below the expected level. This clearly suggests that a serious strategy needs to be developed; especially targeting Gen X customers, in order to improve how to appreciate that their preferred product is value for money.

4.6.7 Commitment (COM)

Table 4.38 shows summary of the mean scores per question of the influence commitment and represents the importance of each question to determine brand loyalty among male deodorant customers in Gen X and Gen Y populations of Cape Town.

Table 4.38 Mean scores of Commitment

Code	Question	Generation Y Mean	Generation X Mean
COM01	I have pledged my loyalty to this particular deodorant brand	61.62%	43.21%
COM02	I do not purchase/sample other deodorant brands if my deodorant brand is unavailable	70.15%	46.69%
COM03	I identify with the deodorant brand that I consume and feel as part of the brand community	60.98%	45.30%
COM04	The more I become committed to a deodorant brand, the more loyal I become	42.79%	32.75%
COM05	I remain committed to deodorant brands even through price increases and declining popularity	50.68%	39.72%
Mean average for Commitment		57.24%	41.53%

As explained earlier customer commitment to a brand is critical. Examining Table 4.38 above, one can see that with exception of question COM04, all questions in Gen Y are important (satisfactory) to deodorant brands in Generation Y. Their mean values are above the required average of 50 percent. As the mean value corresponding to question COM04 is below the satisfactory level of 50 percent, it needs to be improved upon and developed so that younger customers become more committed and loyal to their preferred brands. It is also clear that all questions for Gen X have low mean values (less satisfactory level), suggesting a need for a strategy to improve commitment to the deodorant brands. The mean average for commitment to brand loyalty are 57.24 percent and 41.53 percent for Gen Y and Gen X, respectively. This indicates that a stringent strategy is required to target deodorant customers, especially for the older (Gen X) customers.

4.6.8 Repeat Purchase (RPS)

Table 4.39 below provides a summary of percent mean scores per question of the influence *Repeat Purchase*. These values represent the importance of each question to determine the brand loyalty of male deodorant customers in Gen Y and Gen X.

Table 4.39 Mean scores of Repeat Purchase

Code	Question	Generation Y Mean	Generation X Mean
RPS01	My loyalty towards deodorant brands is purely habitual	42.03%	50.87%
RPS02	I do not necessarily purchase the same deodorant brands all the time	49.59%	57.84%
RPS03	I always sample new deodorant brands as soon as they are available	64.40%	58.54%
RPS04	I establish a deodorant brand pattern and rarely move away from it	45.47%	48.78%
RPS05	Loyalty programmes are the reason I repeat deodorant brand purchases	73.52%	62.72%
Mean average for Repeat Purchase		55.00%	55.75%

For Gen Y two out of four questions (RPS03 and RPS05) are above 50 percent, indicating that they are satisfactory and can be developed further to become excellent. Question RPS02 is borderline satisfactory, if rounded up. Therefore, younger deodorant customers in Cape Town are likely to be prone to loyalty programmes, as they seem to sample new deodorants the moment they are available in the market and loyalty programmes influence their loyalty and make customers more attached to the brands they purchase. Some efforts need to be made to develop loyalty on the basis of the two questions (RPS01 and RPS04) that have mean averages below 50 percent mean score need to be developed.

The tabulated percent mean average scores in category Gen X show that all questions for determining brand loyalty based on relationship proneness are above the 50 percent threshold, with exception of RPS04. They qualify as having satisfactory influence to brand loyalty. Thus, these questions should be developed further to improve loyalty in Generation X. The mean average for relationship proneness is 55.00 percent and 55.75 percent for Gen Y and Gen X, respectfully. This means customers of both generations are prone to be emotionally attached to their deodorant brands.

4.6.9 Brand Affect (BAF)

Table 4.40 displays the mean average scores per question of the influence *Brand Affect* for Generation X and Generation Y.

Table 4.40 Mean scores of Brand Affect

Code	Question	Generation Y Mean	Generation X Mean
BAF01	I obtain positive emotional response through the usage of my brand of deodorant	51.68%	44.32%
BAF02	The deodorant brand that I am loyal towards makes a difference in my life	57.70%	41.39%
BAF03	I am unhappy when I am unable to use/purchase a particular deodorant brand	53.15%	45.42%
Mean average for Brand Affect		54.18%	43.71%

All questions suggestive of *Brand Affect* in both categories of deodorant customers in the Gen Y category are above the satisfactory level of 50 percent. These questions can be developed further to become highly satisfactory. The mean scores for all the three questions in Generation X fall far below the 50 percent level of satisfaction, which indicates that immediate action is required to improve loyalty of the older category of deodorant customers in Cape Town by way of inducing them to relate more to the products they purchase. The mean averages for brand affect are 54.18 percent and 43.71 percent for Generation Y and Generation X, respectively, suggesting that Gen Y customers have more affect with the brands they purchase than those in Gen X.

4.6.10 Brand Relevance (BRV)

Table 4.41 shows the mean average scores per question of the influence *Brand Relevance* for Generation X and Generation Y. As stated in Section 2.17.10.

Companies can ensure that their brands are relevant by increasing their marketing activities spend and guaranteeing that their brand messages are properly understood (Du Plooy, 2012). Perrey, Schroeder, Backhaus and Meffert (2003) state that a brand can be perceived to be more influential when the brand portrays a stronger role adjacent to other purchasing decision conditions for instance customer service, product quality or price. Du Plooy (2012) states that customers identify brands that are

attractive, noticeable and dependable as a result relevant to a particular product category and companies need to maintain more merciless and uncertain innovations to gratify customer needs that have not been met.

Table 4.41 Mean scores of Brand Relevance

Code	Question	Generation Y Mean	Generation X Mean
BRV01	The deodorants that I am loyal towards stand for issues that actually matter	61.52%	54.29%
BRV02	The deodorant brand that I am loyal towards has freshness about them and portray positive importance	42.21%	37.86%
BRV03	I know that a deodorant brand is relevant through the brand messages communicated	45.23%	38.57%
BRV04	The deodorant brands I am loyal towards are constantly updating and improving so as to stay relevant	44.01%	34.64%
Mean average for Brand Relevance		48.24%	41.34%

It is shown that for Generation Y the four questions reflecting the influence *Brand Relevance*, only question BRV01 is above the satisfactory level of 50 percent. Therefore, this question is satisfactory and should be developed to become excellent. Meanwhile, questions BRV02, BRV03 and BRV04 are all below 50 percent and thus unsatisfactory and require action to improve loyalty. For Gen X, all questions are below 50 percent and are unsatisfactory. The mean average for brand relevance is 48.24 percent and 41.34 percent for Gen Y and Gen X, respectively. This suggests that typically there is need for development of messages that speak to brand relevance to make more customers loyal to their brands.

4.6.11 Brand Performance (BPF)

Table 4.42 shows the mean average scores per question of the *influence Brand Performance* for both Generation X and Generation Y.

Table 4.42 Mean scores of Brand Performance

Code	Question	Generation Y Mean	Generation X Mean
BPF01	I evaluate a deodorant brand based on perceived performance	35.75%	34.64%
BPF02	I will switch loyalty from my existing deodorant brand should a better performing deodorant be available	37.46%	47.86%
BPF03	I am only loyal to the top performing deodorant brands	46.77%	40.36%
Mean average for brand performance		39.99%	40.95%

It is clear from the above table that all questions for examining *Brand Performance* fall below the 50 percent satisfaction level; thus unsatisfactory. Therefore, immediate action needs to be taken to improve loyalty for deodorant brands in Cape Town to gain traction.

4.6.12 Culture (CUL)

Table 4.43 shows the mean average scores per question of the influence *Culture* for both Generation X and Generation Y.

Table 4.43 Mean scores of Culture

Code	Question	Generation Y Mean	Generation X Mean
CUL01	My choice of deodorant brands is influenced by my ethnicity	73.41%	60.71%
CUL02	My loyalty towards deodorants is influenced by the choice of deodorants used by my family members	63.93%	67.14%
CUL03	My cultural background impacts on my choice and loyalty of deodorants	73.41%	70.71%
CUL04	Deodorant brands utilized by my family members influences my level of trust in the brand	58.20%	63.93%
Mean average for culture		67.24%	65.63%

It is clear in Table 4.43 that for both Gen Y and Gen X all question are above the satisfactory level of 50 percent, indicating they are satisfactory and need to be

developed to become excellent. *Culture* is, therefore, an important factor affecting brand loyalty in Cape Town.

4.7 SUMMARY OF MEAN VALUES

A summary of mean values of all the brand loyalty influences for both Generation Y and Generation X is shown below in Table 4.44 below:

Table 4.44: Summary of mean values of brand loyalty influences

Loyalty Influence	Consumer Generation (Age Group)	Influence (Percent Mean Values)
1. Customer Satisfaction	Gen Y	31.97%
	Gen X	27.91%
2. Switching Costs	Gen Y	62.97%
	Gen X	47.36%
3. Brand Trust	Gen Y	35.30%
	Gen X	31.30%
4. Repeat Purchase	Gen Y	54.29%
	Gen X	40.59%
5. Involvement	Gen Y	51.80%
	Gen X	46.78%
6. Perceived Value	Gen Y	46.19%
	Gen X	37.59%
7. Commitment	Gen Y	57.24%
	Gen X	41.53%
8. Relationship Proneness	Gen Y	55.00%
	Gen X	55.75%
9. Brand Affect	Gen Y	54.18%
	Gen X	43.71%
10. Brand Relevance	Gen Y	48.24%
	Gen X	41.34%
11. Brand Performance	Gen Y	39.99%
	Gen X	40.95%
12. Culture	Gen Y	67.24%
	Gen X	65.63%

The summary of the weight of influences of brand loyalty based on percentage of average means indicates as follows:

For Generation Y, seven influences *Switching Costs*, *Repeat Purchase*, *Involvement*, *Commitment*, *Relationship Proneness*, *Brand Affect* and *Culture* have mean values above the 50 percent satisfactory level. These questions can, therefore, be considered

important influences to measure brand loyalty in the deodorant industry. Meanwhile, the remaining five influences (i.e., Customer Satisfaction, Brand Trust, Perceived Value, Brand Relevance and Brand Performance) have mean values below the satisfactory level of 50 percent and, therefore, need to be improved and developed to improve brand loyalty for Generation Y.

For Generation X only two influences –*Relationship Proneness* and *Culture*, have met the threshold of 50 satisfactory level of brand loyalty. These questions can be improved further to meet the highest expected level of satisfaction. Meanwhile, more work is required for the rest of the constructs of loyalty.

The implication of this finding is that *Culture*, *Switching Costs*, *Repeat Purchase*, *Relationship Proneness*, *Commitment* and *Involvement* characterise the relationship younger male deodorant customers have with their brands in Cape Town. They are thus important factors that influenced deodorant brand loyalty in Cape Town. There is need to consider studying these influences further, particularly for Generation Y. Customers in this age category seem to strongly show interest in the product quality and thus sticking to their preferred brands. *Culture* was clearly a factor influencing loyalty to deodorant brands in South Africa by both customers in Generation Y and Generation X.

4.8 TEST OF INTER-GENERATIONAL MEAN DIFFERENCE

In order to assess the mean difference in the brand loyalty drivers between Gen X and Gen Y, a t-Test was conducted for all factors (see Tables 4.45 and 4.46) and then for each driver of influence (see Table 4.47).

Table 4.45: Descriptive statistics of overall inter-generational mean difference in brand loyalty

Generation	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Y	50	3.5429	0.92875	0.13135
X	50	3.0375	0.78837	0.11149

As shown in Table 4.46, the overall mean difference between Gen X and Gen Y is 0.5. Generation Y scores more than Generation X. However, the next analysis can tell whether this difference is significant or not.

Table 4.46: Independent-Samples Test of the mean difference in brand loyalty between Gen X and Gen Y

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
F	Sig.	t	DF	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
							Lower	Upper
2.174	0.144	2.934	98	0.004	0.50541	0.17228	0.16351	0.84730

The Levene's Test assumes that the variances of the two groups are equal. The significance value is 0.144, which is greater than 0.1 (or 10%), indicating that the group variances are equal and there is no need to conduct another test. Since the significance value of the t-Test (2-tailed) is less than 0.05, it is safe to conclude that the average of 0.5 score between Gen X and Gen Y is significant, that is, it is not due to chance alone. Therefore, there is need to approach each category of deodorant customers differently, or to develop different marketing strategies.

Table 4.47: Independent-Samples Test of the mean difference in each brand loyalty influences between Gen X and Gen Y

Loyalty Influence	t	DF	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
1. Customer Satisfaction	1.427	8	0.191	0.28396
2. Switching Costs	2.927	8	0.019	1.09304
3. Brand Trust	1.549	6	0.172	0.28032
4. Repeat Purchase	-0.114	8	0.192	-0.05218
5. Involvement	1.169	6	0.287	0.35124
6. Perceived Value	1.080	6	0.321	0.60134
7. Commitment	2.928	8	0.019	1.09965
8. Relationship Proneness	2.180	6	0.072	0.95903
9. Brand Affect	4.811	4	0.009	0.73265
10. Brand Relevance	1.100	6	0.313	0.48313
11. Brand Performance	-0.187	4	0.861	-0.6733
12. Culture	0.373	6	0.722	0.11293

As shown in Table 4.47 above, only four of the 12 drivers of loyalty have significant t-Test (2-tailed; at 10 percent level of significance) of the difference between Gen X and Gen Y. This indicates that *Switching Costs*, *Commitment*, *Relationship Proneness* and *Brand Affect*, need to be differentiated in terms of developing strategies for the two groups of customers.

4.9 BRAND LOYALTY FRAMEWORK IN THE MEN'S DEODORANT INDUSTRY

Figure 4.5 displays the total variance per influence of the deodorant brand loyalty framework. It also shows that one influence, *Repeat Purchase* has two sub-influences within it. It is clearly shown that five influences, *Brand affect*, *Culture*, *Relationship proneness*, *Brand satisfaction* and *Brand relevance*, have the greatest effect on brand loyalty.

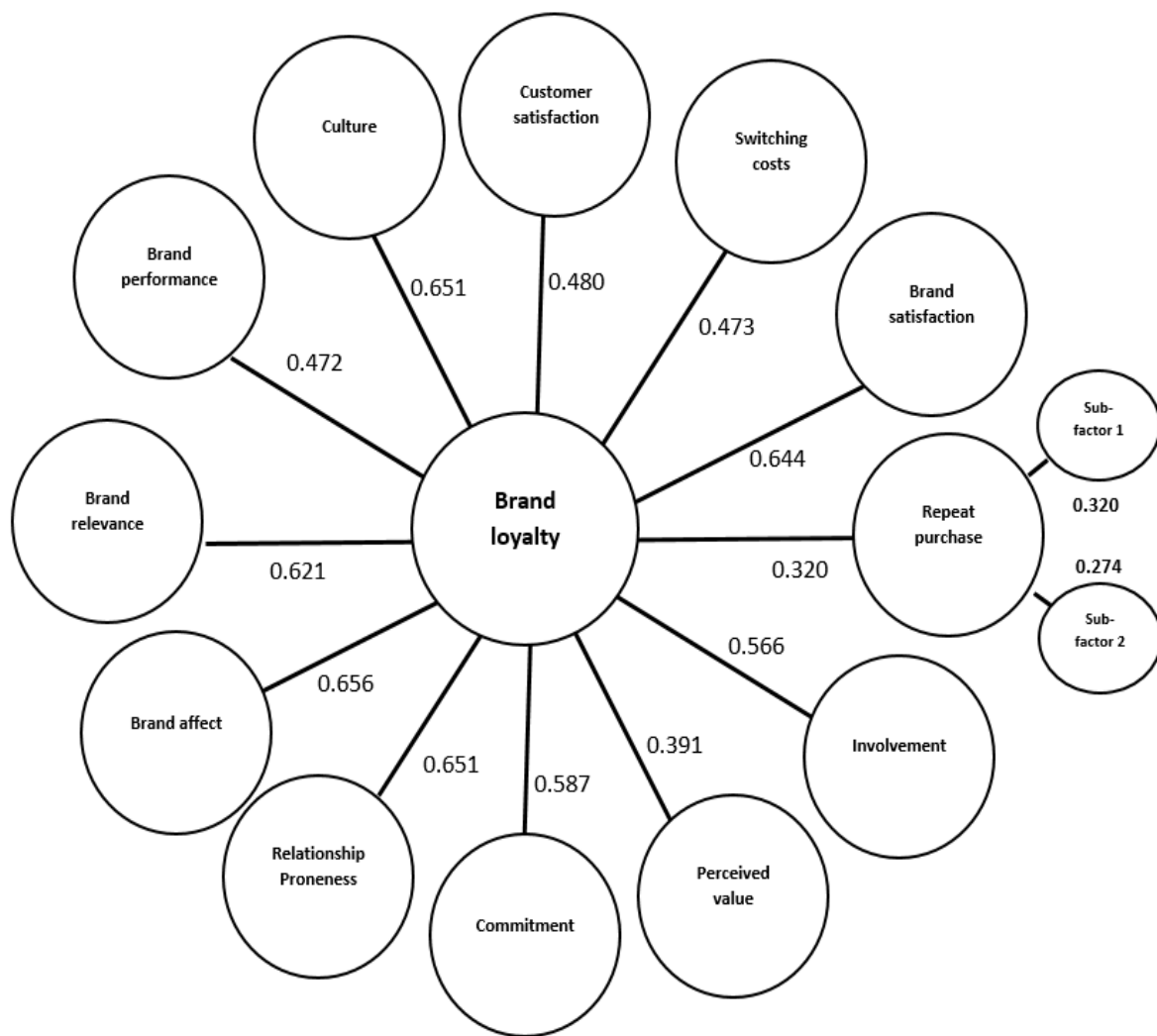


Figure 4.5: A conceptual men's deodorant brand loyalty framework

4.10 CONCLUSION

The empirical results of this study are highlighted in this chapter. The brand loyalty framework is supported by the results of the twelve influences, which indicate that it is a necessary tool for use in the men's deodorant industry. With minor adjustments, this framework might be necessary in measuring brand loyalty of other categories of products by means of a structured questionnaire as used in this study. The leading brands of men's deodorants among respondents who contributed to the study were Nivea, Axe and Shield. The chapter also highlighted that majority of respondents were black, working in the education industry, resided in and around Rondebosch and earned less than R100 000 per annum. This chapter also shows the factors that had

satisfactory reliability coefficients that surpassed the 0.700 required level of reliability as being *Culture*, *Brand Trust*, *Relationship Proneness*, *Involvement*, *Commitment*, *Brand Affect* and *Brand Relevance*, for both Gen Y and Gen X consumers in the men's deodorant industry. The brand loyalty framework in the men's deodorant industry indicated the influences with the greatest effect on brand loyalty are *Brand affect*, *Culture*, *Relationship proneness*, *Brand satisfaction* and *Brand relevance*. The following chapter, which is the final chapter, presents the summaries, conclusions and recommendations of this study.

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARIES, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The research findings were analysed, presented and interpreted in the preceding chapter. The focus of this chapter is to present summaries, conclusions and recommendations for the research conducted. The research objectives are addressed in detail and the study's implications to management are expanded. Furthermore, this chapter highlights the limitations of the study, as well as derives the recommendations for further research and a conclusion. The conclusion highlights how the research aim was accomplished.

5.2 SUMMARY OF LITERATURE REVIEW FINDINGS

The literature review aimed at discussing in detail the topics of brand loyalty and purchase intention, as well as presenting the theoretical framework supported by the study. The literature review describes the deodorant industry in South Africa. There is a higher demand for deodorants by South Africans because of the growth in personal grooming and hygiene. Not only are deodorants significant as a personal hygiene product but as a substitute to fragrances and South Africans tend use sprays and roll-ons due to the heat and humidity in the country. Topics that lead up to brand loyalty are then discussed in detail such as what is a brand, the dimensions of a brand, brand equity, brand positioning and brand preference. The literature review then delves into the topic of brand loyalty. It is described as a commitment to continuously purchase a preferred brand over time than switching to a brand of a competitor. Thereafter, the types of brand loyalty are investigated, which include: loyalty that is transactional; contractual; emotional; spurious; latent; covetous; inertia; premium and where there is no loyalty. The literature then describes customers as either being: a switcher; habitual; satisfied; committed and as likers. Furthermore, the literature within this study suggests that the conceptualisation of brand loyalty can be that it is perceived as: a response that is biased; a response that is behavioural; an expression overtime; a decision making unit; a selection of brands and as a function of a psychological process. The models that measure brand loyalty are presented in the literature which comprises of Punniyamoorthy and Raj (2007) model of brand loyalty as well as Roy's

three dimensional model of brand loyalty. Lastly, with regards to brand loyalty, the literature expands upon the benefits of traditional consumer marketing which are appreciated by brands that have a great customer loyalty.

The intention to purchase is investigated in the literature of this study. Purchase intention is defined as the likeliness that a certain brand will be purchased from a product category by a customer. The literature presents the model of consumer purchase decision-making, which divides the consumer purchase decision process into five stages namely: problem recognition; information search; alternative evaluation; purchase decision and post-purchase evaluation. The literature explains that purchases and purchase intention can be split into buying that is fully planned, partially planned and unplanned. Unplanned buying is described as a purchase that is made without any planning prior to entering the store, whilst partially planned buying is when consumers select a product category and condition before buying a product ahead of entering a shop. Fully planned buying is when a consumer decides prior to entering the store that they will make a purchase. The literature review describes the theories of behaviour which are the theory of reasoned action by Fishbein and Ajzen in (1975) and the theory of planned behaviour developed by Ajzen (1985).

The theoretical framework was based on a perspective that is multi-dimensional, attitudinal and behavioural. This framework utilised twelve substantial influences of brand loyalty and they include: brand commitment; brand affect; brand relevance; perceived value; relationship proneness; customer satisfaction; switching costs; brand trust; repeat purchase; involvement; brand performance and culture. This section will briefly expand upon the twelve influences mentioned in the literature review. Brand commitment is explained as being a link between products and consumers that is emotional, whilst brand affect is described as being a positive emotional response that a customer has due to using a brand. Brand relevance is the degree to which an underlining task is taken by a brand to ensure that there is a process of choice for that brand in a particular product category. Perceived value are the benefits of a product in disparity to its price in obtaining that exact product. Relationship proneness is defined as a characteristic of a buyer in relation to the relationship created with the sellers of that particular brand. Customer satisfaction is attained when consumers perceive the product to have a good quality. Switching costs are the costs obtained by

a customer as a result of switching from one brand to another. Brand trust is explained as when consumers willing rely on a brand to perform as it was intended to do. Repeat purchase is the interval taken by a consumer in repurchasing a specific brand over an equal amount of time. Involvement is a view of the importance of an individual based on their principles, interests and necessities. Brand performance is the assessment by a customer after using the product. Culture is a combined indoctrination of the mind that differentiates affiliates of one collection from the other. The literature review indicated that the influences in this framework were essential in measuring brand loyalty.

5.3 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The findings of this study indicated that most of the respondents (83.3%) were Gen Y (18 to 35 years old), whilst the remaining (16.7%) were Gen X (36 to 52 years old). Furthermore, most of the respondents (52.46%) were black, followed by white (20.08%) and coloured (17.21%). The majority of the geographic distribution of respondents were in Rondebosch (28.63%), Claremont (9.54%) and Mowbray (6.22%). Many respondents (63.93%) had an income per annum of less than R100 000. This may be attributed to a large number of respondents (40%) being in the education category, meaning that predominantly students and men working in the industry of education (i.e. lecturers) took part in the research. The hypotheses of the study are as follows:

Null Hypothesis H_0 : There is no significant statistical relationship between variables measuring the drivers of brand loyalty to men's deodorant brands.

Alternate Hypothesis H_1 : There is a significant statistical relationship between variables measuring the drivers of brand loyalty to men's deodorant brands.

The articulation of the tests hypothesis is as follows:

Tests of hypothesis regarding inter-relationships between each set of questions with deodorant brand loyalty drivers

The null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected and the alternative hypothesis (H_1) is accepted, as there is a significant statistical relationship between each set of questions of the 12 drivers of brand loyalty in the men's deodorant industry.

5.4 ADDRESSING THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

This section highlights whether the research objectives have been achieved by this study. The first objective of this study to determine the items-factor loadings for each of Molla's (2010) twelve-factor brand loyalty drivers in the context of men's deodorants among Generation X and Generation Y consumers in Cape Town. The second objective entailed assessing the reliability of each of the identified brand loyalty influencers/drivers in the men's deodorant industry among Generation X and Generation Y consumers in Cape Town. The third objective focused on establishing Moolla's (2010) twelve-factor model of brand loyalty drivers in the men's deodorant product category among Generation X and Generation Y consumers in Cape Town. The fourth objective assessed the mean difference in the brand loyalty drivers between Gen X and Gen Y.

5.4.1 The factor loadings of each item of Moolla's (2010) twelve-factor brand loyalty drivers

This objective entailed determining the items-factor loadings for each of Molla's (2010) twelve-factor brand loyalty drivers in the context of men's deodorants among Generation X and Generation Y consumers in Cape Town. The study indicated that a factor loading that is 0.60 is considered as satisfactory. The factor loadings on the twelve-factor of the brand loyalty drivers is as follows: *Customer satisfaction* is above 0.60, which indicates that the factor loading for satisfaction is satisfactory, with exception to question CUS04 in the questionnaire, questions CUS01, CUS02, CUS03 and CUS5 for Gen Y and Gen X adequately measure customer satisfaction. For *Switching costs*, question SCR04 of Gen X and Gen Y customers is excluded from being analysed as the factor loading is lower than 0.600. SCR01, SCR02, SCR03, and SCR05 for Gen X and Gen Y customers, appropriately measure switching costs. All the *Brand trust* questions maintain factor loading that is greater than 0.600; indicating

brand trust as appropriately measuring the two generations. The factor loadings for *Relationship proneness* is significantly greater than 0.600, indicating relationship proneness as being measured appropriately by Gen X and Gen Y through RPR01, RPR02, RPR03 and RPR04. All the questions of involvement have a factor loading that is greater than 0.600. This indicates that involvement is measured appropriately for both generations using INV01, INV02, INV03 and INV04.

In *Perceived value*, questions PVL01 of Gen Y and PVL03 of Gen Y and Gen X customers is excluded from being analysed as a result of factor loading that is lower than 0.600. Questions PVL02 and PVL04 for Gen Y and PVL01, PVL02 and PVL04 for Gen X customers, appropriately measure perceived value. The factor analysis for the influence of *Commitment* for questions COM01 to COM05 for both Gen Y and Gen X contain factor loadings that surpass 0.600, and thus there should not be an exclusion of any of the questions. The factor analysis was made to ensure that it is unsuitable for *Repeat purchase* for both Gen Y and Gen X. The data shows unsatisfactory reliability for both Gen Y and Gen X. The factor analysis for the influence of *Brand affect* for questions BAF01 to BAF03 for both Gen Y and Gen X comprise of factor loadings that surpass 0.600, thus questions must be incorporated. All *Brand relevance* questions, BRV01 to BRV04 for both Gen Y and Gen X contain factor loadings above 0.600, all the questions should be included. Factor analysis was conducted to ensure that it is unsuitable for *Brand performance* for both Gen Y and Gen X. The factor analysis for the influence of *Culture* for questions CUL01 to CUL04 for both Gen Y and Gen X. It shows factor loadings that significantly surpass 0.600, implying that all the questions must be incorporated.

5.4.2 Reliability of the identified brand loyalty influencers/drivers

This objective focused on the evaluation of the reliability of each of the identified brand loyalty influencers/drivers in the men's deodorant industry among Generation X and Generation Y consumers in Cape Town. Table 4.30 in the previous chapter provided a synopsis of the reliability of the influences of brand loyalty. For Generation Y the Cronbach Alpha coefficients were: deemed "Good" for culture; perceived as "Acceptable" for brand trust, relationship proneness, involvement, commitment, brand affect and brand relevance; viewed as "Questionable" for customer satisfaction and

switching costs; and considered “Unacceptable” for perceived value, repeat purchase and brand performance. For Generation X the Cronbach Alpha coefficients were: considered “Excellent” for relationship proneness; deemed “Good” for commitment and culture; taken as “Acceptable” for customer satisfaction, switching costs, brand trust, involvement, brand affect and brand relevance; viewed as “Questionable” for perceived value; and “Unacceptable” for repeat purchase and brand performance.

5.4.3 Establishing drivers of Moolla’s (2010) twelve-factor model

This objective looks at establishing Moolla’s (2010) twelve-factor model of brand loyalty drivers in the men’s deodorant product category among Generation X and Generation Y consumers in Cape Town. The study establishes Moolla’s twelve-factor model via the brand loyalty framework in the men’s deodorants industry depicted in Figure 4.5 in the previous chapter. Figure 4.5 highlights that five influences greatly affect brand loyalty which are *Brand affect*, *Culture*, *Relationship proneness*, *Brand satisfaction* and *Brand relevance*. Brand affect has the most influence on brand loyalty out of these five influences with a total variance score of 0.656. The influences with the least impact on brand loyalty with a total variance score of less than 0.60 are *Commitment*, *Brand performance*, *Customer satisfaction*, *Switching costs*, *Perceived value* and *Repeat purchase*. Repeat purchase has the lowest score of total variance with 0.320. However, this is due to the influence of repeat purchase being divided into two sub-factors, with sub-factor 1 having a score of 0.320 and sub-factor 2 with a score of 0.274.

5.4.4 The mean difference in the brand loyalty drivers between Gen X and Gen Y

This objective assessed the mean difference in the brand loyalty drivers between Gen X and Gen Y. Table 4.44 in the preceding Chapter highlighted a summary of the mean values of all the brand loyalty influences for both Generation Y and Generation X. For Generation Y: *Switching Costs*, *Repeat Purchase*, *Involvement*, *Commitment*, *Relationship Proneness*, *Brand Affect* and *Culture* had mean values above the 50 percent satisfactory level. These questions are essential influences to measure brand loyalty in the deodorant industry. Whilst, *Customer Satisfaction*, *Brand Trust*, *Perceived Value*, *Brand Relevance* And *Brand Performance* had mean values below

the satisfactory level of 50 percent and, consequently, need to be improved and developed to improve brand loyalty for Generation Y. For Generation X only two influences – *Relationship Proneness* and *Culture*, met the threshold of 50 satisfactory level of brand loyalty. These questions must be developed further to meet the highest expected level of satisfaction. Meanwhile, more work is required for the rest of the constructs of loyalty.

The study suggests that *Culture*, *Switching Costs*, *Repeat Purchase*, *Relationship Proneness*, *Commitment* and *Involvement* characterise the relationship younger male deodorant customers have with their brands in Cape Town. They are thus important factors that influenced deodorant brand loyalty in Cape Town. There is need to consider studying these influences further, particularly for Generation Y. Customers in this age category seem to strongly show interest in the product quality and thus sticking to their preferred brands. *Culture* was clearly a factor influencing loyalty to deodorant brands in South Africa by both customers in Generation Y and Generation X.

5.5 MANAGERIAL AND MARKETING IMPLICATIONS

The men's deodorant industry is of the outmost importance to South Africa as a result of men rapidly increasing their awareness towards personal hygiene, grooming and appearance; meaning that more men are spending their disposable income on men's deodorants, simultaneously affecting the personal care category which positively leads to a growth in the South African economy. The findings of this study is of significance to brand managers and marketers in the men's deodorant industry; not only is the information provided at no cost, it specifically tailors to providing information to professionals where there is very restricted information. Marketers and brand managers can utilise this information to grow the men's deodorant industry in South Africa by analysing the influences of brand loyalty that positively impact on the intention to purchase men's deodorants.

The influential constructs of brand loyalty in this product category as mentioned earlier are *Brand affect*, *Culture*, *Relationship proneness*, *Brand satisfaction* and *Brand relevance*. This gives marketers a better understanding of what influences are

important for the target audience of Gen X and Gen Y male consumers. For example, *Culture* scored highly as indicated in Figure 4.5; this indicates that even though South Africa is multicultural, male consumers are more likely to be brand loyal to men's deodorants because of their ethnicity, cultural background and influence by family members. Brand managers and marketers can also improve this product category by analysing the least impactful influences on brand loyalty such as *Commitment, Brand performance, Customer satisfaction, Switching costs, Perceived value and Repeat purchase*. For instance, marketers and brand managers can use this information to avoid using strategies that target improving the perceived value that customers have or trying to build relationships with them, as this does not clearly work in this product category, rather they can focus on the influences that are more effective in creating brand loyalty.

5.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The first limitation of this research was the limited information on the subject of men's deodorants, particularly within South Africa where efforts to obtain such information would have incurred a substantial cost on the part of the researcher. Notwithstanding, there is readily available literature on the topic of brand loyalty, as in the studies carried out by Moolla (2010) and Du Plooy (2012). The second limitation of this research is lack of prior research studies on men's deodorants among Gen X and Gen Y consumers. The researcher was not able to compare the results of the findings with similar studies undertaken in the men's deodorant industry, especially studies undertaken in South Africa. The third limitation of this research was lack of financial resources. Limited resources ensured that this study was not able to be undertaken within some surrounding areas in Cape Town due to high transportation costs, this also ensured that the researcher was not able to hire assistants; they would have reduced the time taken to conduct the study as well as have a wider reach in obtaining the targeted audience. Limited resources also ensured that the researcher did not have access to vital information pertaining to the deodorant industry in South Africa that was made available at an ample cost. The fourth limitation is the imbalance between the number of Gen X and Gen Y respondents, due to willingness of the younger respondents to participate in the study than the older respondents.

5.7 RECOMMENDATIONS

With reference to the above summaries and conclusions established in the study, the following recommendations are suggested:

5.7.1 Further studies in the men's deodorant industry

The research recommends conducting further studies in the men's deodorant industry, this is to warrant that there is access to information in an ever growing industry where there is a lack of. This will also ensure interest amongst academics and marketers, which will be beneficial to not only the future researchers themselves but to the South African economy; as this information will allow for the development of brand loyalty of men's deodorants but also ensure that there is increased purchase intention as well.

5.7.2 Conduct a comparative study

The research recommends that a comparative study is conducted in the deodorant industry between Gen X and Y men and women on a larger scale to examine whether there are similarities and/or differences in relation to this study's results. Researchers can also examine what the leading brands in the women's deodorant industry are in comparison to the leading brands of men's deodorants with this study, as well as investigate the influential constructs of brand loyalty in the women's deodorant industry in relation to the men's industry.

5.7.3 Investigate brand loyalty of other product categories

The research recommends exploring other product categories utilised by men to have a better understanding of them as well as have added knowledge towards their influences of brand loyalty, in the process there is a benefit to researchers and marketers in knowing whether there are similarities or differences across these product categories utilised by men.

5.7.4 Focus on culture

This study indicates that *Culture* along with *Relationship proneness* and *Brand affect* are the most significant influences of brand loyalty. The research recommends focusing on culture, although South Africa is multicultural; the results indicate that culture plays an integral role in brand loyalty and purchase of men's deodorants.

Marketers in the men's deodorant industry should utilise culture in their marketing activities to retain customers or attain new ones, as this aligns with the core values of Gen X and Gen Y consumers in the men's deodorant industry.

5.8 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The recommendation is to continue this research on a larger scale in the men's deodorant industry to endorse or rectify the results of this study. As mentioned in the previous section, the researcher had financial constraints. Further studies on a larger scale without financial restrictions may result in the study not only taking part in Cape Town but to the whole of South Africa. This will ensure that unlike this study, the results will be generalizable to the South African population; as it is not solely focused to one specific area. Leading to a much more accurate representation and measurement of brand loyalty of men's deodorants among Gen X and Gen Y consumers.

5.9 CONCLUSION

The primary focus of this research is to examine the factor structures of brand loyalty of men's deodorants among Gen X and Gen Y consumers in Cape Town, based on Moolla's theoretical framework. The findings of this study established and attained its objectives. Chapter One of the study focuses on the measurement of brand loyalty in the men's deodorant industry and explains the aim and significance of the study. It also outlines the primary and secondary objectives, contributions of the study and the research methodology. Secondly, the chapter explores the structure of the study, as well as the research areas covered in each chapter. Chapter Two presents the literature on brand loyalty and the intention to purchase. The chapter has established the twelve influences of brand loyalty identified in Moolla's framework. Chapter Three provides a reflection of the research methodology that expands on the procedures utilised in the study such as the research paradigm and research design; the strategy utilised by the research; collection of data, analysis of data and the statistical techniques. Chapter Four covers the presentation of the data collected and provides comprehensive findings analysed for the research. In addition, the chapter describes the demographic profile of respondents, questionnaire validity, test of interrelationships between factors, result reliability achieved, the significance of the variables of research, the summary of the mean values and test of inter-generational

mean difference. Chapter Five presents a synopsis of the literature review findings and the study's findings were briefly summarised. The research objectives were addressed in order to determine whether they had been obtained. Furthermore, the implications to management and the limitations of the research were presented, the recommendations of the research and the areas for further studies were established.

REFERENCES

- Aaker, D. 1991. *Managing Brand Equity: Capitalizing on the Value of a Brand Name*. New York, N.Y.: Free Press.
- Aaker, D. 2012. Win the brand relevance battle and then build competitor barriers. *California Management Review*. 54(2):43–57.
- Adler, E.S. & Clark, R. 2014. *An invitation to Social Research: How it's done*. 5th ed. ed. Stanford, USA: Cengage Learning.
- Afton, C. 2013. *Problem recognition*. Available: <https://prezi.com/dwbj4s7r7jiu/problem-recognition/> [2018, May 25].
- Ahuvia, A.C. 2005. Beyond the extended self: love objects and consumers' identity. *Journal of Consumer Research*. 32(1):171–184.
- Ajzen, I. 1985. From intentions to actions: A theory of planned behaviour. In *Action-control: From Cognition to Behavior*. J. Kuhl & J. Beckmann, Eds. Heidelberg: Springer. 1–39.
- Albert, N. & Merunka, D. 2013. The role of brand love in consumer-brand relationships. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*. 30(3):258–266.
- Alreck, P.L. & Settle, R.B. 1999. Strategies for building consumer brand preference. *Journal of Product and Brand Management*. 8(2):130–144.
- Amine, A. 1998. Consumers' true brand loyalty: the central role of commitment. *Journal of Strategic Marketing*. (6):305–319.
- Assael, H. 2004. *Consumer Behaviour: A Strategic Approach*. Houghton Mifflin: Pennsylvania State University.
- Aurifeille, J.M., Svizzero, S. & Tisdell, C.A. 2005. *Globalization and partnerships: features of business alliances and international cooperation*. New York, N.Y.: Nova Science.
- Aydin, S., Ozer, G. & Arasil, O. 2005. Customer loyalty and the effect of switching cost as a moderator variable: a case in the Turkish mobile phone market. *Marketing Intelligence and Planning*. 23(1):20–29.
- Babbie, E. 2008. *The Basics of Social Research*. California, USA: Thomson Learning.

- Baker, M. & Hart, S. 2007. *The marketing book*. 6th ed. ed. Amsterdam: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Barkway, P. 2013. *Psychology for health professionals*. 2nd ed. ed. Chatswood, Australia: Elsevier Publishing.
- Bastian, J.C.M. 2015. The Antecedents and Consequences of Brand Equity in the South African Running Shoe Market. University of Cape Town. Available: <https://open.uct.ac.za/handle/11427/20258>.
- Berndt, A. & Petzer, D. 2011. *Marketing Research*. Forest Drive, Pinelands, Cape Town: Pearson Education South Africa.
- Berry, L.L. & Seltman, K.D. 2008. *Management lessons from Mayo Clinic*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Bisschoff, C.A. & Kade, A. 2010. *Validation of a customer service measuring instrument for the ophthalmology industry*. Mpekwini.: SA Institute of Management Scientists.
- Bisschoff, C.A. & Lotriet, R.A. 2009. Die dienskwaliteit van die PUK Rugby-Instituut. *Tydskrif vir Geesteswetenskappe*. 49(2).
- Blackwell, R. D., Miniard, P. W. & Engel, J.F. 2006. *Consumer Behaviour*. 10th ed. ed. Mason, Ohio: Thomson/South Western.
- Bloemer, J.M.M. & Kasper, H.D.P. 1995. The complex relationship between consumer satisfaction and brand loyalty. *Journal of Economic Psychology*. 16(3):311–329.
- Brown, D.R. 2011. *An Experiential Approach to Organizational Development*. New Jersey, USA: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Bruwer, J. & Buller, C. 2013. Product involvement, brand loyalty, and country-of-origin brand preferences of Japanese wine consumers. *Journal of Wine Research*. 24(1):38–58.
- Bryman, A. 2008. *Social Research Methods*. 3rd ed. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Bryman, B. & Bell, E. 2011. *Business Research Methods*. 3rd ed. ed. Cambridge: Oxford University Press.
- Bucklin, R.E. & Lattin, J.M. 1991. A two state model of purchase incidence and brand

choice. *Marketing Science*. 10(1):24–39.

Chaudhuri, A. 1999. The Relationship of Brand Attitudes and Brand Performance: The role of Brand Loyalty. *Journal of Marketing Management*. 9(3):1–9.

Chaudhuri, A. & Holbrook, M.B. 2001. The Chain of Effects from Brand Trust and Brand Affect to Brand Performance: The Role of Brand Loyalty. *Journal of Marketing*. 65(81–93).

Check, J. & Schutt, R.K. 2012. *Survey research methods in education*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Chen, C.C., Chen, P.K. & Huang, C.E. 2012. Brands and consumer behaviour. *Social Behavior and Personality: An international journal*. 40:105–114.

de Chernatony, L. & Riley, F. 1998. Modelling the components of the brand. *European Journal of Marketing*. 32(11):1074–1090.

Chi, H.K., Yeh, H.R. & Yang, Y.T. 2009. The Impact of Brand Awareness on Consumer Purchase Intention: The Mediating Effect of Perceived Quality and Brand Loyalty. *Journal of International Management Studies*. 4(1):135–144.

Chomvilailuk, R. & Butcher, K. 2014. Effects of quality and corporate social responsibility on loyalty. *The Service Industries Journal*. 34(11):938–954.

City of Cape Town. 2019. *Cape Town census and population statistics- Suburb profiles*. Available: [https://www.capetown.gov.za/Family and home/education-and-research-materials/data-statistics-and-research/cape-town-census](https://www.capetown.gov.za/Family%20and%20home/education-and-research-materials/data-statistics-and-research/cape-town-census) [2019, February 22].

Cohen, H. 2011. *30 branding definitions*. Available: [https://heidicohen.com/30-branding-definitions/#targetText=The American Marketing Association defines,all items of that seller](https://heidicohen.com/30-branding-definitions/#targetText=The American Marketing Association defines,all items of that seller.). [2019, September 22].

Copeland, M.T. 1923. Relation of Consumer Buying Habits to Marketing Methods. *Harvard Business Review*. 4:283–289.

Cronbach, L.J. 1951. Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. *Psychometrika*. 16(3):297–334.

Crosno, J.L., Freling, T.H. & Skinner, S.J. 2009. Does brand social power mean market might? Exploring the influence of brand social power on brand evaluations.

Psychology & Marketing. 26(2):91–121.

Decision Databases. 2015. *Global Deodorants Market Research Report - Industry Analysis, Size, Share, Growth, Trends and Forecast, 2014 – 2021*. Available: <https://www.decisiondatabases.com/ip/382-deodorants-market-report> [2018, September 01].

DeFranzo, S.E. 2012. *Advantages and Disadvantages of Surveys*. Available: <https://www.snapsurveys.com/blog/advantages-disadvantages-surveys/> [2018, September 05].

Dehghani, M. & Tumer, M. 2015. A research on effectiveness of Facebook advertising on enhancing purchase intention of consumers. *Computers in Human Behaviour*. 49:597–600.

Delgado-Ballester, E. & Munuera-Aleman, J.L. 2005. Does brand trust matter to brand equity. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*. 14(3):187–196.

Desai, M.Z. 2017. Analysing Loyalty levels displayed by Football fans: A case study on Cape Town City Football club. University of Cape Town.

Dudovskiy, J. 2012. *Consumer Decision Making Process*. Available: <https://research-methodology.net/consumer-decision-making-process/> [2018, May 25].

Dudovskiy, J. 2013. *Consumer Decision Making Process: a detailed analysis*. Available: <https://research-methodology.net/consumer-decision-making-process-a-detailed-analysis/> [2018, May 25].

East, R. 1997. *Consumer Behaviour: Advances and Applications in Marketing*. London, UK: Prentice Hall.

Engel, J.F., Blackwell, R.D. & Miniard, P.W. 1995. What do you want your brand to be when it grows up? big and strong? , *Journal of Advertising Research*. 37(6):23–36.

Euromonitor. 2013. *Deodorants in South Africa*. Available: <https://www.euromonitor.com/deodorants-in-south-africa/report> [2019, April 21].

Euromonitor. 2015. *Deodorants in South Africa*. Available: <https://www.euromonitor.com/deodorants-in-south-africa/report> [2019, April 21].

Euromonitor. 2017. *Deodorants in South Africa*. Available: <http://www.euromonitor.com/deodorants-in-south-africa/report> [2017, September 08].

- Euromonitor. 2019. *Deodorants in South Africa*. Available: <https://www.euromonitor.com/deodorants-in-south-africa/report> [2019, October 01].
- Fandos, C. & Flavian, C. 2006. Intrinsic and extrinsic quality attributes, loyalty and buying intention: an analysis for a PDO product. *British food Journal*. 108(8):646–662.
- Farr, A. & Hollis, N. 1997. What do you want your brand to be when it grows up: big and strong? *Journal of Advertising Research*. 37:23–35.
- Field, A. 2005. *Discovering Statistics Using SPSS*. London: Sage Publications.
- Field, A. 2007. *Discovering statistics using SPSS*. 2nd ed. London: Sage.
- Finkle, C. 2015. *What is a brand?* Available: <https://brandmarketingblog.com/articles/branding-definitions/what-is-a-brand/> [2019, September 23].
- Fishbein, M. & Ajzen, I. 1975. *Belief, attitude, intention and behaviour: An introduction to theory and research*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Forbes, S.L. 2014. *Wine purchasing: Planned or unplanned behaviour*. Available: <https://researcharchive.lincoln.ac.nz/handle/10182/6031> [2018, May 12].
- Foxall, G.R. 2002. *Consumers in context: the BPM research program*. London: Routledge.
- Fullerton, G. 2005. The Impact of Brand Commitment on Loyalty to Retail Service Brands. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences*. 22(2):97–110.
- George, D. & Mallery, P. 2003. *SPSS for Windows step by step: A simple guide and reference*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Giddens, N. 2010. *Brand loyalty*. Available: <http://www.extension.iastate.edu/agdm/wholefarm/pdf/> [2018, May 13].
- Godin, S. 2009. *Define: Brand*. Available: http://sethgodin.typepad.com/seths_blog/2009/12/define-brand.html [2019, September 23].
- Gravetter, F.J. & Forzano, L.B. 2012. *Research Methods for Behavioural Sciences*. California, USA: Cengage Learning.
- Gregg, D. & Walczak, S. 2010. *The relationship between website quality, trust and*

price premiums at online auctions. Amsterdam: Springer.

Griffin, J. 2009. *Customer loyalty*. Available: [http://www.altfeldinc.com/pdfs/Customer Loyalty.pdf](http://www.altfeldinc.com/pdfs/CustomerLoyalty.pdf) [2018, August 10].

Guèvremont, A. & Grohmann, B. 2012. Can good news be bad? The role of brand communication strategy and brand commitment in the announcement of product improvements. *Journal of Marketing Communications*. 20(5):1–14.

Ha, H.Y., John, J., Janda, S. & Muthaly, S. 2011. The effects of advertising spending on brand loyalty in service. *European Journal of Marketing*. 45(4):673–691.

Hair, J.F., Celsi, M.W., Money, A.H., Samouel, P. & Page, M.J. 2015. *Essentials of Business Research Methods*. 2nd ed ed. New York, USA: M.E. Sharpe Inc.

Halim, W.Z.W. & Hameed, A.B. 2005. Consumer purchase Intention at traditional restaurant and fast food restaurant. *Consumer Behavior*.

Hameed, F. 2013. The effect of advertising spending on brand loyalty mediated by store image, perceived quality and customer satisfaction: A case of Hypermarkets. *Asian Journal of Business Management*. 5(1):181–192.

Hartel, C.E.J. & Bennett, R.R. 2010. Heart versus mind: the functions of emotional and cognitive loyalty. *Australasian Marketing Journal*,. 18(1):1–7.

Harvey, H. 2017. *Types of Consumer Loyalty*. Available: <https://bizfluent.com/info-8208520-types-consumer-loyalty.html> [2018, September 04].

Hirschfelder, B. 2015. Effects of content marketing on attitude formation in the South African energy drink market. University of Cape Town. Available: <https://open.uct.ac.za/handle/11427/20259>.

Hofstede, G. 1997. *The Archimedes effect. Working at the interface of cultures: 18 lives in social science*. London: Routledge.

Hu, H.H.S., Kandampully, J. & Juwaheer, T.D. 2009. Relationships and impacts of service quality, perceived value, customer satisfaction, and image: an empirical study. *The Service Industries Journal*. 29(2):111–125. DOI: 10.1080/026420802292932.

Iacobucci, D. & Churchill, G.A. 2010. *Marketing research: methodological foundations*. 10th Editi ed. London: South West.

IBM Corporation. 2015. Available: <http://amosdevelopment.com>.

- Iglesias, O., Singh, J.J. & Batista-Foguet, J.M. 2011. The role of brand experience and affective commitment in determining brand loyalty. *Journal of Brand Management*. 18(8):570–582. DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1057/bm.2010.58>.
- Inman, J.J., Winer, R.S. & Ferraro, R. 2009. The Interplay among category characteristics, customer characteristics, and customer activities on in-store decision making. *Journal of Marketing*. 73(19–29).
- Ishak, F. & Ghani, A.N.H. 2013. A review of the literature on brand loyalty and customer loyalty. In *Conference on Business Management Research 2013*. Sintok: Universiti Utara Malaysia.
- Jacoby, J. & Chestnut, R. 1978. *Brand loyalty: measurement and management*. New York, N.Y.: Wiley.
- Jang, H., Olfman, L., Ko, I., Koh, J. & Kim, K. 2008. The influence of On-Line Brand Community Characteristics on Community Commitment and Brand Loyalty. 12(3):57–80.
- Jarvis, W., Rungie, C. & Lockshin, L. 2007. *Analysing wine behavioural loyalty*. Available: <http://academyofwinebusiness.com/wp-content/uploads/2010/05/File-015.pdf> [2018, July 03].
- Jensen, J. & Hansen, T. 2006. An empirical examination of brand loyalty. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*. 15(7):442–449.
- Jenvy, N. 2017. *Africa ME - South Africa: Male Grooming Market Report 2017*. Available: https://www.cosmeticsbusiness.com/news/article_page/Africa_ME_South_Africa_Male_Grooming_Market_Report_2017/127017 [2019, September 23].
- Johnson, B. & Christensen, L. 2010. *Educational Research: Quantitative, Qualitative and Mixed Approaches*. 4th ed ed. California, USA: Sage Publications.
- Johnston, E. 2016. *5 steps to understanding your customer's buying process*. Available: <https://www.b2bmarketing.net/en/resources/blog/5-steps-understanding-your-customers-buying-process> [2018, June 10].
- Jones, S. 2014. *The Six Stages of the Consumer Buying Process and How to Market to Them*. Available: <https://www.business2community.com/consumer-marketing/six-stages-consumer-buying-process-market-0811565> [2018, August 15].

Jones, T.L., Baxter, M.A. & Khanduja, V. 2013. A quick guide to survey research. *Ann R Coll Surg Engl.* 95(1):5–7.

Joyner, S. 2016. *Deodorants Industry in South Africa*. Available: https://issuu.com/sylviajoyner/docs/deodorants_industry_in_south_africa/2 [2018, November 10].

Kabiraj, S. & Shanmugan, J. 2011. Development of a Conceptual Framework for Brand Loyalty: A Euro-Mediterranean Perspective. *Journal of Brand Management.* 18(4/5):285–299. DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1057/bm.2010.42>.

Kaiser, H.F. 1974. An index of factorial simplicity. *Psychometrika.* 39:31–36.

Kapferer, N.-J. 1992. *Strategic Brand Management: New Approaches to Creating and Evaluating Brand Equity*. New York, NY: The Free Press.

Kapferer, N.-J. 2004. *The new strategic brand management*. 2nd ed. London: Kogan Page.

Keller, K.L. 2003. *Building, measuring, and managing brand equity*. New Jersey, USA: John Wiley & Sons.

Keller, K.L. 2008. *Strategic brand management: building, measuring, and managing brand equity*. 3rd ed. New Jersey, N.J.: Prentice Hall.

Kim, H., Kang, J.M. & Johnson, K.K.P. 2012. Effect of consumer relationship proneness on perceived loyalty program attributes and resistance to change. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management.* 40(5):376–387.

Kim, J., Morris, J. & Swait, J. 2008. Antecedents of True Brand Loyalty. *Journal of Advertising.* 37(2):99–117.

Knox, S. & Walker, D. 2001. Measuring and managing brand loyalty. *Journal of Strategic Marketing.* (9):111–128.

Kotler, P. 2003. *Marketing management*. 11th ed. New Jersey, N.J.: Prentice Hall.

Kotler, P. & Armstrong, G. 2010. *Principles of marketing*. 13th Editi ed. Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Kotler, P. & Keller, K.L. 2006. *Marketing management*. 12th ed. London: Prentice Hall.

Kruger, L.M., Kuhn, S.W., Petzer, D.J. & Mostert, P.G. 2013. Investigating brand

romance, brand attitude and brand loyalty in the cellphone industry. *ACTA Commercii*. 13(1):1–10.

Kumar, S.R. & Advani, J., Y. 2005. actors affecting brand loyalty: A study in an emerging market on fast moving consumer goods. *Journal of Customer Behaviour*. 2(4):251–275.

Kumar, R., Luthra, A. & Datta, G. 2006. Linkages between brand personality and brand loyalty: a qualitative study in an emerging market in the Indian context. *South Asian Journal of Management*. 13(2):11–35.

Kuo, Y.F., Hu, T.L. & Yang, S.C. 2013. Effects of inertia and satisfaction in female online shoppers on repeat-purchase intention: The moderating roles of word-of-mouth and alternative attraction. *Managing Service Quality: An International Journal*. 23(3):168–187.

Kvåle, K. 2007. Do cancer patients always want to talk about difficult emotions? A qualitative study of cancer in-patients communication needs. *European Journal of Oncology Nursing*. 11(4):320–327.

Lam, D. 2007. Cultural influence on Proneness to Brand Loyalty. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*. 19(3):7–21.

Lamb, C.W., Hair, J.F., McDaniel, C., Boshoff, C. & Terblanche, N.S. 2008. *Marketing*. 3rd South ed. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Latif, W.B., Islam, A.I. & Noor, I.B.M. 2014. A conceptual framework to build brand loyalty in the modern marketing environment. *Journal of Asian Scientific Research*. 4(10):547–557.

Lazarevic, V. & Petrovic-Lazarevic, S. 2008. Increasing brand loyalty of generation Y for future marketers. In *Proceedings of the 3rd Biennial Conference of the Academy of World Business, Marketing and Management Development: Managing and Marketing Organizations in an Era of Global Complexity*. G. Ogunmokun, R.. Gabbay, & J. Rose, Eds. 731–740.

Lee, D., Moon, J., Kim, Y.J. & Yi, M. 2014. Antecedents and consequences of mobile phone usability: Linking simplicity and interactivity to satisfaction, trust, and brand loyalty. *Information Management*. 52(295–304).

Leedy, P.D. & Ormrod, J.E. 2014. Qualitative research. In *Practical research: Planning*

and design. 10th ed. Edinburgh: Pearson Education, Inc. 141–172.

Likert, R. 1932. A Technique for the Measurement of Attitudes. *Archives of Psychology*. (140).

Lim, W.M. & Ting, D.H. 2013. *Research Methodology: A toolkit of sampling and data analysis techniques for quantitative research*. Norderstedt, Germany: GRIN Verlag.

Lissitsa, S. & Kol, O. 2016. Generation X vs. Generation Y – A decade of online shopping. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*. 31(3):304–312.

Liu, Y.C. 2008. An analysis service quality, customer satisfaction and customer loyalty of commercial swim clubs in Taiwan. *Dissertation Abstracts International*. 69(03).

Lombardo, J. 2018. *Understanding the Consumer Decision-Making Process: A Marketing Must*. Available: <https://study.com/academy/lesson/understanding-the-consumer-decision-making-process-a-marketing-must.html> [2018, May 25].

Louis, D. & Lombart, C. 2010. Impact of brand personality on three major relational consequences (trust, attachment, and commitment to the brand). *Journal of Product & Brand Management*. 19(2):114–130.

Luo, W. 2010. *Validity and reliability testing*. Available: www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2897024/ [2019, September 26].

Madden, T.J., Ellen, P.S. & Ajzen, I. 1992. A comparison of the theory of planned behavior and the theory of reasoned action. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*. 18(1):3–9.

Maheshwari, V., Lodorfos, G. & Jacobsen, S. 2014. Determinants of brand loyalty: A study of the experience-commitment-loyalty constructs. *International Journal of Business Administration*. 5(6):13–23.

Malhotra, N.K. 2010. *Marketing Research: An Applied Orientation*. Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Pearson Education, Inc.

Malhotra, N.K. & Birks, D.F. 2007. *Marketing research: an applied approach*. Harlow: Prentice Hall/Financial Times.

Manikandan, K. & Rajamohan, A. 2014. Consumer's Need for Uniqueness in Buying Small Cars. *Journal of Management Policies and Practices*. 2(1):135–146.

Marcati, A., Barbaranelli, C. & Vecchione, M. 2007. Relationship Proneness—the

Concept, Its Dimensions and Indicators. In *NA Advances in Consumer Research Volume 34*. G. Fitzsimons, V. Morwitz, & D. Morwitz, Eds. Association for Consumer Research. 329–330.

Market Research Report. 2017. *Deodorant market research reports, analysis & trends*. Available: <https://www.marketresearchreports.com/deodorant> [2017, September 09].

Martínez, P. & Rodríguez-del-Bosque, I. 2013. CSR and customer loyalty: The roles of trust, customer identification with the company and satisfaction. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*. 35:89–99.

Mathiyazhagan, T. & Nandan, D. 2010. Survey research method. *Media Mimasa*. 39–45.

Matzler, K., Grabner-Kräuter, S. & Bidmon, S. 2008. Risk aversion and brand loyalty: the mediating role of brand trust and brand affect. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*. 17(3):154–162.

Mbumbwa, T. 2016. Exploring factors influencing black South African Millennials when considering African Ankara Fashion. University of Cape Town. Available: <https://open.uct.ac.za/handle/11427/22928> .

McKean, J. 2010. *Managing customers through economic cycles*. Amsterdam: Wiley.

Mentz, H. 2011. Customer-based brand equity of the major cellphone network service providers amongst principal estate agents in the Gauteng province of South Africa. University of South Africa. Available: <http://hdl.handle.net/10500/4754> .

Meskaran, F., Ismail, Z. & Shanmugam, B. (in press). Online purchase intention: Effects of trust and security perception. *Australian Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences*. 7(6):307-315.

Meskaran, F., Ismail, Z. & Shanmugam, B. 2013. Online purchase intention: Effects of trust and security perception. *Australian Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences*. 7(6):307–315.

Montano, D.E. & Kasprzyk, D. 2015. Theory of reasoned action, theory of planned behavior, and the integrated behavioural model. In *Health behaviour: Theory, research and practice*. 95–124.

Mooi, E. & Sarsredt, M. 2011. *A concise guide to Market Research: The process, data*

and methods using IBM SPSS statistics. New York, USA: Springer Publications.

Moolla, A.I. 2010. A conceptual framework to measure brand loyalty. North West University: Potchefstroom.

Moolla, A.I. & Bisschoff, C.A. 2012. A Model to Measure the Brand Loyalty for Fast Moving Consumer Goods. *Journal of Social Science*. 31(1):75–75.

Morwitz, V. 2012. Consumers' Purchase Intentions and their Behavior. *Foundations and Trends in Marketing*. 7(3):181–230.

Morwitz, V.G. & Schmittlein, D. 1992. Using segmentation to improve sales forecasts based on purchase intent: which intenders actually buy? *Journal of Marketing Research*. (29):391–405.

Morwitz, V.G., Steckel, J. & Gupta, A. 1996. *When do purchase intentions predict sales?* (10012). New York.

Mostert, P.G., Petzer, D.J. & Weideman, A. 2016. The interrelationships between customer satisfaction, brand loyalty and relationship intentions of Generation Y consumers towards smart phone brands. *South African Journal of Business Management*. 47(3):25–34.

Muhammad, A., Hamad, N. & Shabir, G. 2014. Impact of Brand Equity Drivers on Purchase Intention (A Quantitative Study of Smart Phone Market). *International Journal of Innovative Research & Development*. 3(5):388–394.

Mukherji, P. & Albon, D. 2014. *Research methods in early childhood: An introductory guide*. London, UK: Sage Publications.

Musa, R. 2005. Proposed conceptual model of satisfaction-attitudinal loyalty-behavioural loyalty chain: exploring the moderating effect of trust. In *Proceedings of the ANZMAC 2005*.

Naeini, A.B., Azali, P.R. & Tamaddoni, K.S. 2015. Impact of Brand Equity on Purchase Intention and Development, Brand Preference and Customer Willingness to Pay Higher Prices. *Management and Administrative Review*. 4(3):616–626.

Nam, J., Ekinci, Y. & Whyatt, G. 2011. Brand equity, brand loyalty and customer satisfaction. *Ann. Tourism Res*. 38(3):1009–1030.

Oliver, R.L. 1999. Whence customer loyalty? *Journal of Marketing*. 63(5):33–44.

- Ordun, G. 2015. Millennial (Gen Y) Consumer Behaviour, Their Shopping Preferences and Perceptual Maps Associated With Brand Loyalty. *Canadian Social Science*. 11(4):40–55.
- Parish, J.T. & Holloway, B.B. 2010. Consumer relationship proneness: a reexamination and extension across service exchanges. *Journal of Services Marketing*. 24(1):61–73.
- Patterson, P.G. 2000. An Examination of the Explanatory Power of Loyalty Proneness, Motivation, and Personal Similarity Scales in the Thai Service Marketing Context. In *Visionary Marketing for the 21st Century: Facing the Challenge*.
- Perrey, J. & Spillecke, D. 2011. *Retail Marketing and Branding: A Definitive Guide to Maximising ROI*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Perrey, J., Schroeder, J., Backhaus, K. & Meffert, H. 2003. When do brand investments pay off? *Mckinsey Marketing & Sales Practice on Branding*. 31–46.
- Persistence Market Research. 2017. *Deodorants and Antiperspirants Market: Global Industry analysis and Forecast to 2020*. Available: <https://www.persistencemarketresearch.com/market-research/deodorants-antiperspirants-market.asp> [2017, September 08].
- Pharmaceutical & Cosmetic Review. 2013. *Man in the mirror*. Available: <https://www.pharmacos.co.za/male-grooming-on-the-increase/> [2019, September 24].
- Du Plooy, H. 2012. Measuring brand loyalty in the pharmaceutical industry of South Africa. North West University: Potchefstroom. Available: <http://hdl.handle.net/10394/8685>.
- Ponto, J. 2007. Understanding and Evaluating Survey Research. *Journal of the Advanced Practitioner in Oncology*. 6(2):168–171.
- Punniyamoorthy, M. & Raj, P.M. 2007. An empirical model for brand loyalty measurement. *Journal of Targeting, Measurement and Analysis for Marketing*. 15(4):222–233.
- Raju, S., Unnava, H.R. & Montgomery, N.V. 2009. The moderating effect of brand commitment on the evaluation of competitive brands. *Journal of Advertising*. 38(2):21–36.

- Randall, G. 2001. *The art of branding*. London: Crest Publishing House.
- Reisenwitz, T.H. & Iyer, R. 2009. Differences in generation X and generation Y: implications for the organization and marketers. *The Marketing Management Journal*. 19(2):91–103.
- Rhodes, A. 2013. *Re-Examining the Effects of Switching Costs*. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.2246819> [2018, September 05].
- Rith, C. 2009. *Branding 101 - How to write a positioning statement*. *Brand Strategy*. Available: <http://www.smbmarketingguide.com/brand-strategy/branding-101-how-to-write-a-positioning-statement/> [2018, July 18].
- Rosenbaum-Elliott, R., Percy, L. & Pervan, S. 2011. *Strategic Brand Management*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Rowley, J. 2005. The four Cs of customer loyalty. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*. 23(6):574–581.
- Roy, S. 2011. Brand Loyalty Measurement: A Framework. *Journal of Indian Management*. 8(2):112–122.
- Rubin, A. & Babbie, E. 2010. *Research Methods for Social Work*. 7th ed ed. California, USA: Cengage Learning.
- Sahin, A., Zehir, C. & Kitapçı, H. 2011. The Effects of Brand Experiences, Trust, Satisfaction on Building Brand Loyalty: An Empirical Research On Global Brands. *Procedia Social Behavioural Science*. (24):1288–1301.
- Sanyal, S.N. & Datta, S.K. 2011. The effect of perceived quality on brand equity: an empirical study on generic drugs. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*. 23(5):604–625.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P. & Thornhill, A. 2009. *Research Methods for business students*. 5th ed. Essex, UK: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Scheaffer, R.L., Mendenhall, W., Ott, R.L. & Gerow, K.G. 2012. *Elementary Survey Sampling*. 7th Editio ed. Brooks/Cole, Ed. Boston, MA: Cengage Learning.
- Scholtz, L. 2014. Measuring brand loyalty in the hospitality industry in South Africa. North West University. Available: <http://dspace.nwu.ac.za/handle/10394/15539>.
- Sekeran, U. & Bougie, R. 2010. *Research Methods for Business: A skill-building*

Approach. 5th ed ed. New Jersey, USA: John Wiley & Sons.

Shah, H., Aziz, A., Jaffari, A.R., Waris, S., Ejaz, W., Fatima, M. & Sherazi, K. 2012. The Impact of Brands on Consumer Purchase Intentions. *Asian Journal of Business Management*. 4(2):105–110.

Shiue, Y. & Li, L. 2013. Brand involvement in retaining customers despite dissatisfaction. *Social Behaviour and Personality: An international journal*. (41):643–650.

Shukla, P. 2009. Impact of contextual factors, brand loyalty and brand switching on purchase decisions. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*. 26(5):348–357.

Spire Research. 2012. *Men's grooming industry: Time for emerging markets to steal the show*. Available: <https://www.spireresearch.com/spire-journal/yr2012/q4/mens-grooming-industry-time-for-emerging-markets-to-steal-the-show/> [2009, September 23].

Sprinthall, R.C. 2007. *Basic statistical analysis*. 8th ed. Boston, MA: Pearson Education, Inc.

Starkey, S. 2017. An Investigation of Low-Income Consumer- Buying Behaviour in the Personal Care Industry in South Africa. University of Cape Town. Available: <https://open.uct.ac.za/handle/11427/27488>.

Statistics South Africa. 2016. *Provinces at a glance*. Available: <https://www.gov.za/sbout-sa/south-africa-glsnce> [2017, September 06].

Stewart, L. 2010. *Difference between brands and branding*. Available: <http://www.indiecreatives.com/category/branding/> [2019, September 23].

Sung, Y. & Kim, J. 2010. Effects of brand personality on brand trust and brand affect. *Psychology & Marketing*. 27(7):639–661.

Taylor, S.J., Bogdan, R. & DeVault, M. 2015. *Introduction to Qualitative Research Methods: A guidebook and resource*. New Jersey, USA: John Wiley & Sons.

TechNavio. 2015. *Global Deodorant Market 2015-2019*. Available: <https://www.technavio.com/report/global-deodorant-market-2015-2019> [2017, September 08].

Traylor, M.B. 1984. Ego involvement and brand commitment: not necessarily the

same. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*. 1(2):75–79.

Truong, Y., Mccoll, R. & Kitchen, P.G. 2010. Uncovering the relationships between aspirations and luxury brand preference. *Journal of Product and Brand Management*. 19(5):346–355.

Turner III, D.W. 2010. Qualitative interview design: A practical guide for novice investigators. *The Qualitative Report*. 15(3):754–760.

Tybout, A.M. & Calkins, T. 2005. *Kellogg on Branding*. New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons.

Vianelli, D., Dianoux, C., Domanski, T. & Herrmann, J.L. 2007. In-store shopping behavior. *Journal of East-West Business*. 13(2–3):115–142.

Wahyuni, D. 2012. The research design maze: Understanding paradigms, cases, methods and methodologies. *Journal of applied Management Accounting Research*. 10(1):69–80.

Wang, Y. & Tsai, C. 2014. The Relationship between Brand Image and Purchase Intention: Evidence from Award Winning Mutual Funds. *The International Journal of Business and Finance Research*. 8(2):27–40.

Wankel, C. 2009. *Encyclopedia of Business in Today's World*. 1st Edition ed. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Wel, C.A.B.C., Alam, S.S. & Nor, S.M. 2011. Factors Affecting Brand Loyalty: An Empirical Study in Malaysia. *Australian Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences*. 5(12):777–783.

Willot, L. 2019. *Likert Scale: What You Need to Know*. Available: <https://www.customerthermometer.com/customer-surveys/likert-scale-examples-questions-what-you-need-to-know/> [2019, September 23].

Wu, P.C., Yeh, G.Y.Y. & Hsiao, C.R. 2011. The effect of store image and service quality on brand image and purchase intention for private label brands. *Australasian Marketing Journal*. 19(1):30–39.

Zeithaml, V.A. 1988. Consumer perceptions of price, quality, and value: a means-end model and synthesis of evidence. *The Journal of Marketing*. 52(3):2–22.

Zikmund, W.G. & Babin, B.. 2017. *Essentials of Marketing Research*. Mason, USA: Cengage Learning.

APPENDIX A: RESEARCH INSTRUMENT



UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN
FACULTY OF COMMERCE
Igniting Knowledge and Opportunity



Dear Participant,

My name is Lobojo Lokosang and I am a Masters' Student at the University of Cape Town. I am undertaking a research project based on: **An investigation into the brand loyalty of men's deodorants among Generation X & Generation Y consumers in Cape Town.** This research investigation has been approved by the Ethics in Research Committee in the Faculty of Commerce at the University of Cape Town.

Please note that any information that you give in relation to this study is done so in the strictest confidence and your identity shall be protected. The findings from this investigation will be used solely for the purpose of an academic study whereby the cumulative findings will be stated. By completing this questionnaire, you as respondent:

- Partake in the study with implicit consent.
- Are fully aware that partaking in the questionnaire is voluntary.
- Understand that withdrawal from the questionnaire can occur at any point, with no adverse consequences.
- Have full right of access to clarify possible issues from the researchers.

If you have any queries, or if you would like to have access to findings, please don't hesitate to contact: Lobojo Lokosang at lobojolokosang@yahoo.com or 0614498419. I would like to thank you very much for partaking in this study and taking your time to fill in this questionnaire.

Kind regards, Signature removed to avoid exposure online
Lobojo Lokosang

Please place a cross in the appropriate column

Age group (Generation)	
18-35 (Generation Y)	
36-52 (Generation X)	

Please specify the deodorant brand you are loyal to (next column)	
---	--

Research questionnaire to establish the brand loyalty of men's deodorants among Generation X & Generation Y consumers in Cape Town (Adapted from Moolla, 2010:262).

This survey is 5 pages long and may take approximately 10 minutes to complete

Section A- Demographics

Race/Ethnicity	
Black	
White	
Coloured	
Asian	
Prefer not to answer	

Area of residence in Cape Town					
Green Point		Claremont		Kenilworth	
Sea Point		Constantia		Wynberg	
CBD		Durbanville		Muizenburg	
Camps Bay		Bellville		Parklands	
Milnerton		Rondebosch		Clifton	
Table View		Newlands		Stellenbosch	
Hout Bay		Claremont		George	
Other (please specify):					

Income per annum	Segment
Less than R100,000	
R100,000-R250,000	
R250,000-R500,000	
R500,000-R1m	
More than R1m	
Prefer not to answer	

Industry			
Arts & Crafts		Property	
Banking		Health Care	
Construction		Human resources	
Professional		Insurance	
Tourism		Retail	
Education		IT & Telecommunications	
Fashion		Legal	
Financial		Marketing	
Other (please specify):			

No	Code	Question	Strongly Agree	Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	CUS01	I am very satisfied with the deodorant brand I purchase							
2	CUS02	Distinctive product features in my deodorant brand keeps me brand loyal							
3	CUS03	My loyalty towards a particular deodorant brand increases when I am satisfied with that brand							
4	CUS04	I do not repeat a purchase if I am dissatisfied about a particular deodorant brand							
5	CUS05	I get pleasure from the deodorant brand I am loyal towards							
6	SCR01	I do not switch deodorant brands because of the high cost implications							
7	SCR02	I do not switch deodorant brands because of the effort required to reach a level of comfort							
8	SCR03	I avoid switching deodorant brands due to the risks involved							
9	SCR04	I switch deodorant brands according to the current economic conditions							

No	Code	Question	Strongly Agree	Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
10	SCR05	I prefer not to switch on deodorant brands as I stand to lose out on the benefits from loyalty programs							
11	BTS01	I trust the deodorant brand that I am loyal towards							
12	BTS02	I have confidence in the deodorant brand that I am loyal towards							
13	BTS03	The deodorant brand I purchase has consistently high quality							
14	BTS04	The reputation of the deodorant brand is a key factor in me maintaining brand loyalty							
15	RPR01	I prefer to maintain a long term relationship with a deodorant brand							
16	RPR02	I maintain relationships with a deodorant brand in keeping with my personality							
17	RPR03	I maintain a relationship with deodorant brands that direct their communication to me personally							
18	RPR04	I have a passionate and emotional relationship with							

No	Code	Question	Strongly Agree	Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
		deodorant brands that I am loyal towards							
19	INV01	Loyalty towards deodorant brands increases the more I am involved with them							
20	INV02	Involvement with a deodorant brand intensifies my arousal and interest towards that brand							
21	INV03	I consider other deodorant brands when my involvement with that brand reduces							
22	INV04	My choice of deodorant brand is influenced by the level of involvement others have with their deodorant brand							
23	PVL01	My deodorant brand loyalty is based on product quality and expected performance							
24	PVL02	I have an emotional attachment with the deodorant brands which I am loyal towards							
25	PVL03	Price worthiness is a key influencer in my loyalty towards deodorant brands							
26	PVL04	The deodorant brands I am loyal towards enhances my ability to socialise							

No	Code	Question	Strongly Agree	Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
27	COM01	I have pledged my loyalty to this particular deodorant brand							
28	COM02	I do not purchase/sample other deodorant brands if my deodorant brand is unavailable							
29	COM03	I identify with the deodorant brand that I consume and feel as part of the brand community							
30	COM04	The more I become committed to a deodorant brand, the more loyal I become							
31	COM05	I remain committed to deodorant brands even through price increases and declining popularity							
32	RPS01	My loyalty towards deodorant brands is purely habitual							
33	RPS02	I do not necessarily purchase the same deodorant brands all the time							
34	RPS03	I always sample new deodorant brands as soon as they are available							

No	Code	Question	Strongly Agree	Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
35	RPS04	I establish a deodorant brand pattern and rarely move away from it							
36	RPS05	Loyalty programmes are the reason I repeat deodorant brand purchases							
37	BAF01	I attain a positive emotional response through the usage of my brand of deodorant							
38	BAF02	The deodorant brand that I am loyal towards makes a difference in my life							
39	BAF03	I am unhappy when I am unable to use/purchase a particular deodorant brand							
40	BRV01	The deodorants that I am loyal towards stands for issues that actually matters							
41	BRV02	The deodorant brand that I am loyal towards has freshness about them and portray positive importance							
42	BRV03	I know that a deodorant brand is relevant through the brand messages communicated							
43	BRV04	The deodorant brands I am loyal towards are constantly updating and							

No	Code	Question	Strongly Agree	Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
		improving so as to stay relevant							
44	BPF01	I evaluate a deodorant brand based on perceived performance							
45	BPF02	I will switch loyalty from my existing deodorant brand should a better performing deodorant be available							
46	BPF03	I am only loyal towards the top performing deodorant brands							
47	CUL01	My choice of deodorant brands is influenced by my ethnicity							
48	CUL02	My loyalty towards deodorants is based on the choice of deodorants used by my family members							
49	CUL03	My cultural background impacts on my choice and loyalty of deodorants							
50	CUL04	Deodorant brands utilised by family members influences my level of trust in the brand							

Thank you very much for your valuable contribution to this investigation. Enjoy your day further.

APPENDIX B: ETHICS APPROVAL



Faculty of Commerce

Private Bag X3, Rondebosch, 7701
2.26 Leslie Commerce Building, Upper Campus
Tel: +27 (0) 21 650 4375/ 5748 Fax: +27 (0) 21 650 4369
E-mail: com-faculty@uct.ac.za
Internet: www.uct.ac.za



@Commerce_UCT



UCT Commerce Faculty Office

06.03.2018

Mr Lobojo Laila Barnaba Lokosang
School of Management Studies
University of Cape Town

REF: REC 2018/003/003

Dear Lobojo Laila Barnaba Lokosang

**Project : An investigation into the brand loyalty of men's deodorants among
Generation X & Generation Y consumers in Cape Town**

We are pleased to inform you that your ethics application has been approved.
Unless otherwise specified this ethical clearance is valid for 1 year and may be renewed
upon application.

Please be aware that you need to notify the Ethics Committee immediately should any
aspect of your study regarding the engagement with participants as approved in this
application, change. This may include aspects such as changes to the research design,
questionnaires, or choice of participants.

The ongoing ethical conduct throughout the duration of the study remains the responsibility
of the principal investigator.

We wish you well for your research.

Litha Tyulu
Administrative Assistant
University of Cape Town
Commerce Faculty Office
Room 2.26 | Leslie Commerce Building
Office Telephone: +27 (0)21 650 2695
Office Fax: +27 (0)21 650 4369
E-mail: litha.tyulu@uct.ac.za
Website: www.commerce.uct.ac.za<<http://www.commerce.uct.ac.za/>

"Our Mission is to be an outstanding teaching and research university, educating for life and addressing the challenges facing our society."

APPENDIX C: STATISTICIAN'S LETTER

African Union Commission
W21K19 Roosevelt Avenue
P. O. Box 3243
Kirkos Sub-City
Addis Ababa – Ethiopia

Date: 15 March 2019

STATEMENT ON STATISTICAL METHODS USED IN STUDENT RESEARCH PROJECT

This is to confirm that, I, the undersigned, having reviewed the research proposal of the University of Cape Master of Commerce Candidate Lobojo LB Lokosang in fulfilment of his dissertation titled “Investigating Brand Loyalty of Men’s Deodorants among Generation X and Generation Y Consumers in Cape Town” prior to its submission for a go ahead, carried out the following activities:

- 1) Examined the proposed methods and instruments for collecting and analysing the data and established its appropriateness in view of the stated aims of the study;
- 2) Examined the sampling design and selection in accordance with the scope of the study;
- 3) Advised the Candidate on the suitable statistical methods and analytical package to be used and guided him on how to create data entry template, defining protocols for data cleaning and preliminary/exploratory analysis;
- 4) After the Candidate had completed entering all the forms and conducted preliminary analysis, I advised him on how to proceed with using the right procedures for analysis the data and how to generate the information based on the desired statistical parameters; and
- 5) Reviewed all the outputs of the statistical analysis to establish that there are no invalid or inaccurate information generated;

In brief, I testify that the information generated based on the statistical methods used, are valid and the right ones for the types of information required.

I am a qualified and practicing statistician. My track record includes serving as statistician in Ministries of Health in South Sudan and Malawi, as a consultant in management information systems and monitoring and evaluation. I also served as Director for Monitoring and Evaluation in the National Bureau of Statistics. I taught statistics in secondary and college level and was a tutor of under-graduate students at the University of KwaZulu-Natal for two consecutive academic seasons (2010-11). Over the last thirty years, I helped post-graduate students with their quantitative research projects.

signature removed to avoid exposure online

Laila B. Lokosang, Ph.D (statistics, UKZN)

Mobile: (+251) 926 77 31 36

Email: LokosangL@africa-union.org Skype: lailokosang Twitter : Lai_Lokosang

APPENDIX D: LANGUAGE QUALITY ASSURANCE PRACTITIONER LETTER



Language Quality Assurance Practitioner

3 Rosslyn Close
Isandovale
Edenvale, 1609
[Tel:+27745356824](tel:+27745356824)

23 March 2019

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

I hereby certify that I have language-edited the thesis of Mr. Lobojo Lokosang:
**INVESTIGATING BRAND LOYALTY OF MEN'S DEODORANTS AMONG GENERATION
X AND GENERATION Y CONSUMERS IN CAPE TOWN**

I am satisfied that, provided the changes i have made are effected to the text, the language is
of an acceptable standard, and is fit for examination/publication.

Should you require any further help, feel free to contact the undersigned

signature removed to avoid exposure online

Joel Chigada, PhD

Language Quality Assurance-Certification Statement